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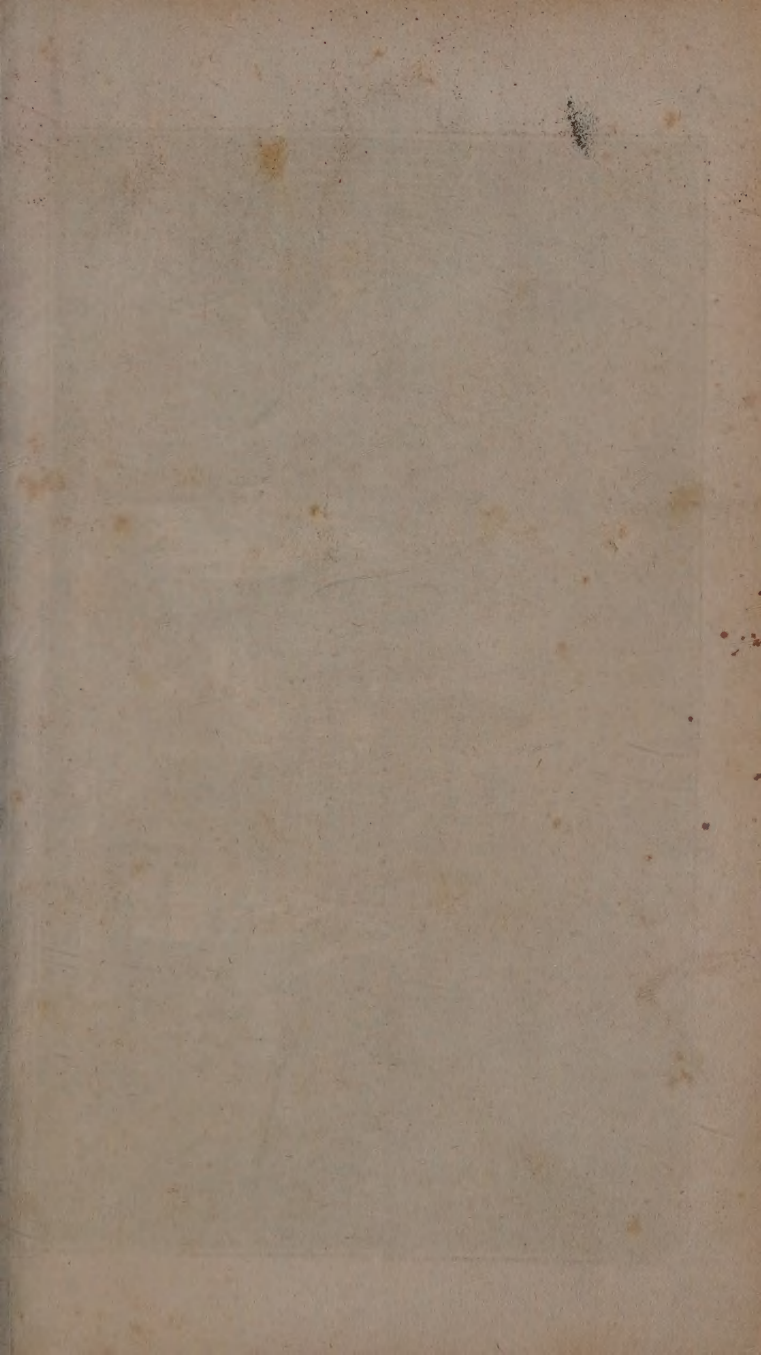
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**RELIGIOUS
CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS,**

**OR THE
FORMS OF WORSHIP**

**PRACTISED BY THE SEVERAL NATIONS OF THE KNOWN WORLD,
FROM THE EARLIEST RECORDS TO THE
PRESENT TIME.**

ON THE BASIS

**OF THE
CELEBRATED AND SPLENDID WORK OF
BERNARD PICART.**

TO WHICH IS ADDED,

A BRIEF VIEW OF MINOR SECTS,

WHICH EXIST AT THE PRESENT DAY;

**DESIGNED ESPECIALLY FOR THE USE OF FAMILIES; NOT ONLY
AS ENTERTAINING AND INSTRUCTIVE, BUT OF
GREAT IMPORTANCE AS A**

WORK OF REFERENCE.

BY CHARLES A. GOODRICH.

**ACCOMPANIED WITH A LARGE MAP OF THE WORLD, AND
EMBELLISHED WITH ELEGANT ENGRAVINGS.**

HARTFORD:

PUBLISHED BY HUTCHISON AND DWIER.

1836.

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PREFACE.

IN the Prospectus of the present volume, it was announced that it would have for its basis a work published in Europe some time since, commonly known by the title of "Picart's Religious Ceremonies and Customs;" and so denominated from the circumstance, that this distinguished artist prepared embellishments for the work, consisting of more than five hundred copper-plate engravings, which, for elegance of design, and for felicity of execution, have rarely, if ever, been excelled.

The work was originally composed in French, and was comprised in six volumes folio. Its celebrity obtained for it an English translation, in the same number of volumes; and within a few years the whole has been abridged in a large quarto volume, by Colin Mackenzie, Esq. This abridgement has been chiefly used by the Editor in preparing the present volume; but the embellishments have been taken from the English folio translation, and the abridgement generally compared with it.

Although the principal part of the volume has been derived from the foregoing work; yet important additions and alterations have been made. These have resulted from a desire to conform the work to the present state of Nations and Tribes, in respect to several of which our knowledge has been greatly enlarged and corrected, since the work of Picart

was compiled. It will be seen, that besides that portion of the volume, which is occupied by the Introduction and the History of the Jews, (for which articles the Editor is indebted to a distinguished literary friend, and which he thinks will be found greatly to enhance the interest and value of the Volume,) new articles have been prepared in respect to the Hindoos, and most of the Protestant Communities; while important corrections and additions have been made illustrating the ceremonies and customs of the Mahometans—Indian and African Tribes, &c. The brief article on the South Sea Islands is chiefly derived from the popular work, “Polyneesian Researches,” by Ellis.

It was the original plan of the Editor to embrace within the volume proposed, an account of the religion of some nations and tribes, which he has felt himself obliged, in the sequel, to omit, that he might avoid a common and just objection to abridgements, viz. that in the multiplicity of subjects treated of the interest of circumstance and detail is lost. To the student of anatomy, a skeleton may be an object of pleasant contemplation; but to secure the interests of the casual observer, it must have the usual accompaniments of the living man. The “Dictionary of Minor Sects,” which it was intended should embrace a large number, has been necessarily confined to a “Brief View” of such only as may be deemed most important.

The belief is entertained that the volume will be found to be replete with interest and instruction, growing out of the subjects upon which it treats. The reader will have presented to him a picture of the religious world. He will perceive upon that picture many dark, and distressing shades;—he will see in what varied and unhallowed forms, mankind have worshipped the common Parent of all; he will be led to contemplate the delusions practised upon millions, by the cunning and craft of imposture; the unholy devotion de-

manded of other millions, by an intolerant hierarchy; and the debasing superstitions and cruel abominations inculcated upon still more millions of the human family, by an earth-born system of idolatry. From the pain of dwelling upon these darker shades, he will find relief, by turning his eye upon some bright spots in the picture. There are, blessed be God, some such spots, the original darkness of which has been in a measure removed, by the shedding down of light from on high. And, although that heavenly light is in a degree obscured by the variety and contrariety of opinions, which still prevail among christian communities; yet the reader will find it pleasant to reflect that the differences, which now divide them, are gradually diminishing. A day is coming, when, in respect to essential truths, and, perhaps, in respect to those which are less important, there will prevail a delightful harmony among the professed followers of a once crucified Redeemer. Nay, more than this, the voice of prophecy has predicted a still more glorious triumph of the Son of God. Into the dark corners of the earth, the light of the Gospel will ultimately penetrate, and the habitations of cruelty will become the dwelling places of righteousness. Even at this present time, the Christian Church is gathering in the first fruits of this golden age. The anti-christian systems and the idolatrous superstitions of the world are rapidly approaching their fall. What, if the Jew still clings to the dreams of a Messiah Ben David—what, if the Mussulman still pays his devotions at the tomb of the prophet—what, if the Hindoo yet points to a future *avatar* of Vishnoo, the preserver, the tidings of a crucified Redeemer are spreading through every portion of the globe. “Idolatry has been overthrown in the islands of the Pacific; and in India, that massive, gorgeous, venerable superstition, which has withstood not only the decay of time, but the sword of Mahomet, zealously protected, patronized, and endowed by a Christian

government, has been undermined, and a breach has been made in the outworks. The Bramin has been converted, and the still prouder Moslem, and the unimpassioned Chinese, the degraded negro, and the wild Caffer, and the brutish Hottentot."

These are antepasts of better days. Yet how much remains to be done before the warfare of Zion shall be accomplished!—before that period shall arrive, when the earth shall be full of the knowledge of God! Let the reader inquire, while he hails that day as certain in its advent, what he may do to accelerate its arrival.

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION. - - - - -	Page 9
-------------------------	--------

PART I.

HISTORY AND RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES OF THE JEWS. -	21
---	----

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF THE JEWS. - - - - -	21
--------------------------------	----

CHAPTER II.

RELIGIOUS CUSTOMS AND CEREMONIES OF THE JEWS. -	53
Sec. 1. Fundamental Doctrines. - - - - -	53
Sec. 2. Customs and Laws of the Ancient Jews. -	59
Sec. 3. Religious Rites. - - - - -	72
Sec. 4. Ecclesiastical Discipline—Worship—Festivals, &c. - - - - -	81

PART II.

HISTORY AND RELIGIOUS CUSTOMS OF THE MAHOMETANS. -	97
--	----

CHAPTER I.

LIFE OF MAHOMET. - - - - -	97
----------------------------	----

CHAPTER II.

RELIGIOUS TENETS, CEREMONIES, AND CUSTOMS OF THE MAHOMETANS. - - - - -	123
--	-----

PART III.

RELIGIOUS TENETS, CEREMONIES, AND CUSTOMS OF THE GREEK AND ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCHES. - -	159
---	-----

CHAPTER I.

GREEK CHURCH. - - - - -	159
Sec. 1. Greek Church Proper. - - - - -	159
Sec. 2. Religious Principles and Customs of the Russian Greek Church. - - - - -	197
Sec. 3. Other Branches of the Greek Church. - -	220
Sec. 1. Georgian and Mingrelian Churches. - -	220
Sec. 2. Nestorian Churches. - - - - -	224
Sec. 3. Christians of St. Thomas. - - - - -	228
Sec. 4. Religious Ceremonies and Customs of the Jacobites. - - - - -	231
Sec. 5. Religious Ceremonies and Customs of the Copts. - - - - -	233
Sec. 6. Doctrines and Customs of the Abyssinian or Ethiopians. - - - - -	235
Sec. 7. Religious Tenets and Customs of the Arminians. - - - - -	241

CHAPTER II.

RELIGIOUS TENETS, CUSTOMS, CEREMONIES, &c. OF THE	
ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH. - - - -	247
Sec. 1. Tenets, Customs, &c. - - - -	247
Sec. 2. Sacraments of the Roman Catholic Church.	361
Sec. 3. Holy Orders of the Roman Catholic Church.	377
Sec. 4. Hierarchy of the Roman Catholic Church.	391

PART IV.

RELIGIOUS CUSTOMS AND CEREMONIES OF PROTESTANT	
COMMUNITIES. - - - - -	402
Sec. 1. Lutherans. - - - - -	403
Sec. 2. Church of England. - - - - -	416
Sec. 3. Kirk of Scotland. - - - - -	429
Sec. 4. English and American Presbyterians. -	434
Sec. 5. Calvinists. - - - - -	436
Sec. 6. Arminians. - - - - -	445
Sec. 7. Congregationalists. - - - - -	448
Sec. 8. Baptists. - - - - -	460
Sec. 9. Methodists. - - - - -	465
Sec. 10. Quakers. - - - - -	476

PART V.

RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF PAGAN NATIONS AND	
TRIBES.	
Sec. 1. Religious Ceremonies and Customs of the	
Chinese. - - - - -	487
Sec. 2. Religious Ceremonies and Customs of the	
Japanese. - - - - -	512
Sec. 3. Religious Tenets, Ceremonies, and Customs	
of the Thibetians and Tartars. - -	535
Sec. 4. Religious Doctrines, Ceremonies, and Cus-	
toms of the Hindoos. - - - - -	546
Sec. 5. Religious Ceremonies and Customs of the	
Laplanders. - - - - -	557
Sec. 6. Religious Ceremonies and Customs of Indian	
Tribes. - - - - -	560
Sec. 7. Religious Ceremonies and Customs of Afri-	
can Tribes. - - - - -	566
Sec. 8. Religious Ceremonies and Customs of the	
Polynesians. - - - - -	570
A Brief View of Minor Sects. - - - -	573

INTRODUCTION.

It is a fact which we learn from history, that *religion of some kind has existed, in every period of time, and among all nations.* It can be traced up to the infancy of the world, and among the fathers of the human race. Religion of some kind has always existed. The earliest account that has reached us, which is that of our sacred scriptures, informs us of its existence even before the origin of nations, while as yet the inhabitants of the globe were one entire community.

Some few notices appear in that book, of the religious rites of the antediluvian world; as the offerings of Cain and Abel, the practice of prayer, or the profession of religion; mention is also made of the pious character of the descendants of Seth; the brief, but touching, story of Enoch's faith is given; and the family of Noah is particularly introduced in connexion with the religion of this period. In the antediluvian world.

After the origin of nations, consequent on the dispersion at Babel, we learn something from the Bible, of the fate of divine institutions, among the separate portions of mankind, so far as these are brought into view in the sacred narrative. In confirmation of the Bible, the earliest fabulous accounts, as they are called, all refer to some kind of religion promulgated by the founders of nations, and held and practised by the latter. After the origin of nations Profane history abounds in representations of this nature, and we learn from its pages, how the Egyptians, Babylonians, Greeks, and other ancient nations, were committed to the observation of certain religious rites and ceremonies. Their notions and tenets also on this subject have been occasionally transmitted to us, and although these, in most instances, are extremely vague and absurd, they evidently betray a common origin. Thus the universality of religion of some sort, in the earliest ages, is a matter of history: and the same impartial guide introduces us to an acquaintance with the varying creeds, every age forms, and observances of nations since, whether since. in their rude or civilized condition." All seem to have obeyed

that law of the human mind, which bids it to seek repose in some sort of religion.

Our knowledge of the different communities of men at the present time, which, by means of improvements in navigation, and facilities in travelling, is nearly universal,

And at the present time. confirms the same important truth. Scarcely a tribe, however unenlightened, is found, but that possesses a kind of religious faith. Perhaps, strictly speaking, no one is found without the notion of God, and an invisible or future world; for although some two or three savage communities may have been reported by travellers to be thus destitute, there is reason to believe that further inquiry would show the fact to be otherwise. On the whole, it may be safely asserted to be a condition of mankind, which is essentially universal.

If the representations above made are correct, *religion may be supposed to be, in some sense, natural to the human species.*

Hence religion is in some sense natural to man. This is an inference which must readily suggest itself to every reflecting mind. It could not rationally be accounted for, that in every period of the world, and among all nations and tribes of men, some notion of God and human accountableness, and certain modes of worship should prevail, without referring religion to a settled law or principle of our common nature. A want surely exists in the human mind, which can be supplied only by some kind of religion. It is a confirmation of the

This is confirmed by a moral survey of man. view here taken, that a survey of man as a rational creature of God, must lead us to believe that, in some sense, religion is natural to him.

"Whoever," says a writer, "seriously reflects on the powers and capacities of the human mind, regarding them as the work of him that doeth nothing in vain, and comparing them with those of the inferior creatures, will readily perceive that man alone was created to be religious. Of all the inhabitants of this earth, none else are capable of attaining any knowledge of their Creator, or of rendering him any worship or praise. Man alone possesses the capacity of distinguishing between truth and falsehood; between moral good and evil; and of receiving instruction in social and relative duties, with the obligation under which he lies to perform them, and the advantages of doing it. He alone is capable of being governed by a law, and of being influenced by the proposal of rewards and punishments; of acting as under the eye of an invisible Observer, and with reference to the future season of retribution."

But although religion may be said to be thus natural to man, it does not follow that the right thing will always be chosen. The want before spoken of is a *general* want, and it may seem to be satisfied, though it should not be in reality, with any and with every form of religion. We say with *every* form of religion; for one people at least, viz. the Athenians, always im-

But the right religion is not always chosen.

ported the deities and superstitions of every nation with whom they became acquainted, and engrafted them on their own creed. The tendencies of nature to some system of faith and worship, are not a specific and unerring direction to any one system in particular. If they were such a direction, a perfect uniformity would have existed in the theology of all nations.

But this we now have occasion to remark is not the case. Notwithstanding religion, in the above respect, is natural to man, *a great diversity of religious opinions has prevailed in the world, and different forms and ceremonies have been and still are observed.* We find a great variety of religions in the world.

The religious notions and practices of mankind early diverged from one another—the sons of men were soon distinguished from the sons of God, the impious from the holy—and, notwithstanding the purgation of the world by a flood, and the subsequent re-establishment of one common faith, no sooner did the earth begin to be peopled again, than a diversity of religions took place, each nation and tribe embracing some peculiarity of its own. Such has been the fact, through all the intervening periods of history, to the present day. Each distinct portion of the human family, especially its larger divisions, has had its separate religious dogmas and practices, ranging from pure theism to the grossest idolatry. At the present time, there are at least four general forms, or departments of religious belief among mankind: viz. the Christian, the Jewish, the Mahometan, and the Pagan, which, for the most part, are subdivided into many others. In regard to Paganism, it may be remarked, that it is as various as the separate portions of people that constitute the Gentile world.

The causes of this diversity cannot but form an interesting subject of inquiry. The inquisitive mind of man very naturally desires to know, how the same being, with the same essential wants, should have fallen upon religions so unlike, and often, so opposed to one another. What is there in the circumstances of human nature, that can afford a clue to this surprising fact

It is interesting to know the causes of this diversity.

1. Does the variance spoken of arise merely from chance

We are not believers in this phantom, as furnishing a solution

It does not of any phenomenon. We do not think that it spring from is the cause of any thing in existence, much less chance.

do we suppose that it can account for the variety and difference in the religion of mankind. If accident operated here, it might indeed give a diversity to this propensity of nature, or, it might give to it a uniformity. It were just as likely to effect the one as the other, only it would not be apt to produce a uniformity in variety. It would be infinitely unapt to do this. Yet such seems to be literally the case in the religions of the human species. They uniformly differ from one another, and most of them essentially from the truth. It concerns those who believe in chance as the cause of any thing, or the cause of such a moral phenomenon, to make out the proof. There seems to us to be something extremely absurd in referring to contingency merely, as the cause of an effect, when, by the nature of the word, it neither is, nor can be *known* as such a cause.

2. Does the above diversity arise from circumstances foreign or external to the mind, such as time, location, climate,

Nor from ex- or country? It is not unnatural to suppose that ternal circum- such circumstances might modify, in a small de- stances.

gree, the religions of mankind; but they could not well produce such essential and irreconcilable differences as prevail. Religions exist in perfect diversity or contrariety in situations where we might suppose they would be the same, or nearly the same, so far as the operation of these extraneous causes is concerned. At the same period, in the same climate, under the same government, among a people speaking the same language, there are found often the most dissimilar religions, creeds, and practices. What one class esteems as divine, another abhors as sacrilegious. Where there is little diversity in other respects, such as the features of nature, the form of government, or the civil habits, there is often a wide difference in religion. A Mahometan, whether in Asia or Africa, invokes the impostor, and his credulity flourishes equally well, on the table-lands of the one, as amid the deserts of the other. A Jew is found the same all the world over, and, in religion, owns no communion with his Christian neighbours. Creeds are believed and ceremonies are observed, both of the most opposite kinds, under the same physical and social circumstances,

3. Does again the diversity spoken of, proceed from any necessary tendencies of the human mind to difference or opposition? It would be more than could be expected from

human nature as we now find it, that mankind should think and act *exactly* alike on this subject. Nor from any necessity in On no subject, is there a perfect coincidence of the mind for views and practices. On this account, some difference. differences are to be looked for, at least, as mankind are at present situated. But in most things, especially those of a practical nature, those differences need not be essential. They are not so necessary as that mankind cannot act together, and realize the important ends of civil society. Certain advantages as to information, seem to bring most men into a reasonable measure of conformity to one another. It cannot be thought, therefore, that there is any more necessity in the mind itself for diversity in religion, than there is as to the other great interests of life. The mind is not changed in its attributes, when it acts in respect to religion. And the diversity is not, in fact, to be traced to such a source. There is no irreversible fate here. Besides, we can hardly suppose from the nature of the case itself, that there could be a necessary tendency in the mind to difference or opposition in the affair of religion, or the intercourse of the soul with God. None could seriously maintain that in such a concern, he would have made mankind with any invincible tendency to difference, or with so strong a tendency, as that it would be next to miraculous that they should agree. On so vital a subject, he certainly would be apt to give them freedom of choice, either to agree or disagree. He would be most unapt to bind them to the dire necessity only of disagreeing.

4. Does the diversity in question spring from the want of a divine revelation? As believers in such a revelation, we must answer in the negative. Abundant proof could Nor from the be presented, were it necessary, that mankind want of a revelation in possession of a revelation from God. That revelation. revelation is found in the Bible; but we shall here take for granted the authenticity and divine authority of that sacred book. Its claims to be considered as containing the revealed will of God have been too often admitted, to be denied at this day—a day when its prophecies are so amply fulfilling, and its effects on the heart and life, wherever received, are so decidedly excellent. Varying human faiths are not then owing to the want of a divine revelation—a revelation directing all men how they should believe, feel, and act in respect to God and invisible realities. Such is the nature of the revelation which is given to us in the Bible. Its truths are clearly announced; the object, mode, and obligations of religious worship, are distinctly pointed out. The only true reli-

gion, in its different dispensations, is communicated to us in full and satisfactory details. Had God left men without the light of his word, it might be expected that they would wander in darkness. If he had not informed them respecting the only divine system of religion, a reason might be found in that circumstance, for the almost endless diversity which exists in creeds, and in the objects and modes of worship. But, now, this cannot be the cause of that diversity, since a divine revelation is possessed, given to mankind in the first ages of the world, continued for a long period by tradition, and at length committed to writing, as its portions were completed from time to time.

5. Passing by the aforementioned, as inadequate causes of the variety of religious professions among men, is not the proper

But it arises from human depravity. explanation to be found in the radical depravity of the human heart? Is not that the true cause? It seems to us that it can be resolved into no

other. Of the depravity of the human heart we are not permitted to doubt, in view of the decisions of the Bible, and the results of observation. But existing and reigning in all men by nature, it would readily dispose them to a diversity of religious views and practices, or rather to irreligion under various names. It would readily dispose them to depart from the true belief, and to cast off the restraints of the divine authority. They would be prone to invent many schemes and devices with a view to appease an upbraiding conscience, and to gratify that ceaseless love of novelty, which characterizes the human mind. Except in those in whom the effects of depravity are counteracted by divine grace, there would exist a continual propensity to depart from God and his institutions—to lose sight of religious truth, and become involved in gross darkness and superstition. In such a state, the mind is prepared for every absurdity.

“Nations ignorant of God, contrive
A wooden one.”

Hence have arisen the abominations of heathen worship.

Hence arose the altars and demons of heathen antiquity, their extravagant fictions, and abominable orgies. Hence we find among the Babylonians and Arabians, the adoration of the heavenly bodies, the earliest form of idolatry; among the Canaanites and Syrians, the worship of Baal, Tammuz, Magog and Astarte; among the Phœnicians, the immolation of children to Moloch; among the Egyptians, divine honours bestowed on animals, birds, insects, leeks, and onions; among the Persians, religious reverence offered to fire; and among

the polished Greeks, the recognition in their system of faith, of thirty thousand gods. Hence, moreover, we find at the present time among most pagan tribes, the deadliest superstitions, the most cruel and bloody rites, and the most shocking licentiousness and vice practised under the name of religion. From the darkened views and evil feelings inspired by the depraved heart, proceed all those fatal mistakes about God, the way of acceptance with him, and the realities of the future world; all those departures from a consistent belief and worship, which distinguish every nation, and every portion of the world, except where the Bible is strictly received as the rule of life.

So obvious is it that the depravity of the heart has dictated the various false religions that prevail in the world, that even the infirmities remaining in pious persons have given rise to minor differences among the evangelical sects of Christians. Every wrong and perverted feeling of the heart is likely to engender a degree of deviation from the truth. Hence those unhappy, though not fatal separations which take place among persons who, on the whole, adhere to the same great fundamental principles. Christian integrity secures a substantial, though not literal, agreement in the truths and observances of religion. If that integrity were perfect in this world, or more nearly perfect than it now is, there might literally be but one creed, and one mode of worship.

The corruptions even of good men have occasioned smaller differences.

An acquaintance with these different systems of religion, while it is calculated to furnish no small entertainment, will convey several highly important reflections to the reader. We should not, and cannot well contemplate such a scene, without learning some useful lessons from it, especially as it is connected with glorious purposes, which God evidently intends to subserve.

The diversity of religions teaches some important lessons.

1. A view of these religions, will present to us a melancholy account of the apostacy of the human species. It will evince the nature and the effects of that apostacy, and thus confirm the scriptural narrative on the subject. It will exemplify the great fact of human degeneracy in a form and manner calculated to convince every candid reader, that original, deep, and wide spread corruption, in which the fall of man consists, appears in dark lines, in the history of the various religions which mankind have embraced. Indeed, the most disgusting exhibitions of man's apostacy are found in many of the religions which he has contrived, with a view to supersede the religion derived

Presents a melancholy account of the apostacy.

from heaven. The awful consequences of the apostacy will here be presented in a medium, in which they will appear in their undisguised, most hateful character. The lust, impurity, pride, ambition, revenge, malignity, rebellion, unbelief, selfishness, in which this primitive defection is manifested, constitute the leading features of those superstitions, to which millions in every age have bowed.

2. A view of these religions, so far as they are departures from the truth, will furnish a sad detail of the extent and power of Satan's empire in the world. Mankind having Shows the extent and power of Satan's empire. apostatized from God, have, in every nation, and in every period of time, been successively brought under the dominion of Satan. They have been subject to his influence, obeyed his laws, and in their religious rites, often directly paid him homage. In fine, they have been his slaves, and he has claimed them as his property. The wickedness, in which he delights, they have, in innumerable instances, practised. We may form some idea of the extent and power of Satan's empire, from the fact, that all the nations of antiquity, except the Israelites, were idolaters by profession, and even the latter were practically idolaters, at times. That system of religion was called Polytheism, as acknowledging a plurality of gods, who, according to the poet, were no other than the chiefs of the fallen spirits, that

"durst fix
Their seats long after, next the seat of God,
Their altars by his altar, gods adored,
Among the nations round."

All these nations worshipped divinities or devils by various representations, called idols. Forsaking the service of the only living and true God, they paid that homage which is due to him, to those beings that are infinitely unlike him in character.

3. A view of the absurd religions which mankind have embraced, shows the necessity of a divine revelation—that revelation with which the nations are favoured in the Holy Scriptures. This exhibits to us the necessity of a true system of religion, and is the umpire to evince the necessity of a divine revelation. which appeal must ever be made on this subject. "To the law and to the testimony, if they speak not according to this word, it is because there is no light in them." The necessity of a divine revelation is apparent amidst diverse and opposing faiths, since nothing but such a revelation could enable men to know the truth. They would be lost in an endless labyrinth of conjectures. Reason alone could not be appealed

to with a view to determine what is right and what is wrong in human belief. But a revelation from God, properly authenticated, as it must be, would prove an unerring guide. It would direct mankind to itself, and throw a clear light over all the field of moral and religious truth. Without such a revelation, so far as man on earth is concerned, it would be to him an endless scene of darkness, doubt, and perplexity.

4. A knowledge of the opposing religious systems among mankind, will evince the necessity not only of a divine revelation, but also of the direct influences of the Supreme Agent, in causing mankind to harmonize in their views. As it is apparent that their disagreement, on points so vital, proceeds from depravity of heart; it would seem that light alone is not sufficient to produce union, though it is important as an auxiliary or means to this result. That wrong state of the heart must be rectified—that depravity must be subdued, and this cannot be done except by the Spirit of God. He only can directly influence the spirit that is in man, and form it to truth and to rectitude. His operations, by removing the grounds of opposition and error, will restore harmony of views, as a natural consequence. Accordingly, divine influences are promised, and have been imparted, in a degree, hitherto to the children of men. Hence is found that measure of agreement, on all essential points, which characterizes all evangelical Christians, or those who submit to the Bible, in its plain and simple communications. A view, then, of the various religions of the world, will show the necessity of direct divine operations, in producing a uniformity of opinions on the subject of religion.

Evinces the necessity of direct divine influence in order to produce harmony.

5. An account of the clashing and absurd religions that have controlled such numbers of mankind, will impart an exalted idea of the mercy of God, in the promulgation of Christianity. As the only true religion—the great centre of divine communications—the point where all the rays of revelation meet, (the Jewish system being only preparatory to it, though very important in that view,) it will manifest God's benevolent desire to guide and influence mankind aright, in respect both to their present and future welfare. When we learn the spirit and the requirements of Christianity; when we become acquainted with its practical tendencies; how it prepares men in the temper of their minds, not only for a better world, but to enjoy greater happiness in this; how it elevates their understanding and improves their social condition,

Manifests the divine mercy in the promulgation of Christianity.

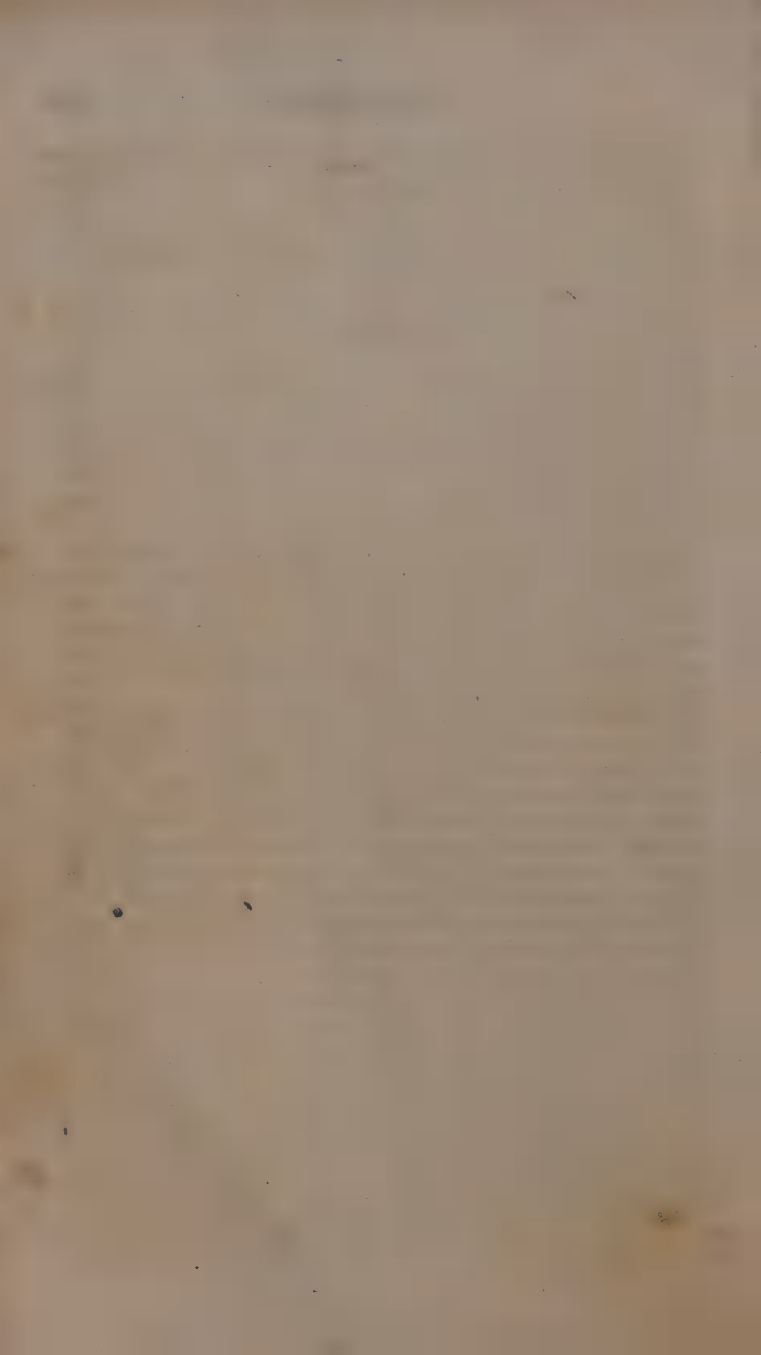
we cannot but be impressed with a sense of the divine mercy, in the invaluable gift. Indeed, no finite mind can fully conceive the importance of the gospel, as the instrument in God's hand of effecting the salvation of souls. But we might entertain something like an adequate conception, of the temporal blessings conferred by this system on a fallen race. There has been, however, even among those who have largely participated in these blessings, a remarkable failure duly to appreciate the benignant influence of Christianity in this world. Very incorrect ideas on this subject are entertained among the mass of mankind, in Christian lands. The error, however, is inexcusable. We believe the time is coming, when a very different, and much higher, estimate of the gospel will be formed, in its effects not only on the spiritual, but on the temporal and social condition of man. It will be felt how much we are indebted to it, for all the real blessings we enjoy in this life.

6. A consideration of the kind we speak of, will furnish Christians with a powerful incentive to unite in diffusing a knowledge of Christianity. Judging from their own experience of its power, they can but view this religion as the only corrective of a false faith and a wicked practice, and such indeed is the fact. It is the only religion which, by a moral influence, can displace others. It acknowledges no true religion except its own, and never tolerates any other. Indeed, in its principles, it is hostile to every other religion, and makes a war of extermination against all superstition, idolatry, false worship, unbelief, and vice. In early times, it extinguished the religion of pagan Rome, because it would have no competitor, because it would own no associate. And it has since extended itself, only by displacing other religions, through a moral influence. The peaceful exertions of its friends and subjects, have been the means of its triumphs hitherto, and will doubtless continue so to be, if those triumphs are continued. Christians reading the sad story of the debasing superstitions and idolatries that still spread over the world, must feel powerfully prompted to unite their energies in the wide and universal dissemination of their religion. And it is a pleasing reflection, constituting the great encouragement of their labours, that the divine light of Christianity will one day dispel all the deep moral darkness which still covers a large portion of the earth. That darkness will vanish, as fast as the Sun of righteousness shall arise upon the world, with healing in his wings.

Finally ; it is delightful to go forward in our contemplations to the time when there shall be one religion among men, and but one. That time is destined to arrive. The voice of prophecy has declared it. “ In the last days, the mountain of the Lord’s house shall be established in the top of the mountains and shall be exalted above the hills, and all nations shall flow unto it.” And he who founded this religion, said in the days of his humanity, “ And other sheep I have which are not of this fold : them also I must bring, and they shall hear my voice ; and there shall be one fold and one shepherd.” After all the conflicting views of mankind on the subject of religion ; after all the diversified forms of error, there shall come a period of blessed unanimity, and of the universal prevalence of the truth. There will be but one religion, and that one, the glorious gospel of our salvation.

There will at last be but one religion.

It is not, however, to be inferred that there may not be different evangelical denominations of Christians ; since we are by no means permitted to believe, that there will ever be sinless perfection on earth. The existence of these denominations, all “ holding the head”—the same great distinguishing principles, and exercising a mutual liberality of feeling in respect to the less important parts of the system, is not inconsistent with unanimity in the sense here understood. In this case, one religion may be said to prevail, and only one, throughout the earth, and among all nations. It will be one in its essential peculiar features, and one in the spirit and in the practices which will characterize the human family. In different sections, in different divisions, supposing that all are not to coalesce in one particular denomination, will the church universal move on, in her bright career, each harmonizing essentially with the other, and all conspiring to advance the common object of the believer’s high calling in Christ Jesus.



PART I.

HISTORY AND RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES OF THE JEWS.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

AN account of the religion of the Jews, may, with great propriety, be preceded by a succinct history of that people. A recent interesting historian* has pronounced them, without reference to their religious belief, as "among the most remarkable people in the annals of mankind." Contemplated in connexion *with* their religion, and as a means of understanding it more fully, their history claims our attention, more than that of any other nation. It instructs us in a different manner from that of any other, because it brings directly into view the divine dealings with them.

The Jews, in the early periods of their history, are known under the more general name of Hebrews or Israelites, who constituted a community of which the Jews, as they were afterwards denominated, were only a part. The origin of their name, and the circumstances of their separation from the associated tribes, will appear in the course of our narrative. This distinguished race, commonly called the people of God, was derived from Abraham, lineally descended in the tenth generation from Shem, the eldest son of Noah. His calling of God, which took place 1921 years B. C. is a remarkable event in history, and deserves a brief notice.

In obedience to the command of God, Abraham, who was a son of Terah, the head of a pastoral family, left Ur in Chaldea, his native country, and dwelt with his father in Haran. Ur was a district to the north east of that region, which lies above the confluence of the Tigris and Euphrates, and became afterwards the seat of the great Babylonian monarchy. Haran was a city situated in the north west part of Mesopotamia. The former place, from the signification of the name, was supposed to be particularly infected with idolatry, and hence the reason of

* Rev. H. H. Milman.

the command, connected with the purpose of God to make Abraham the father of a great and peculiar nation. By the same command, after Terah's death, he went into the land of Canaan, which God promised to his posterity. *They* were to be included within the boundaries of that country.

The divine design, in thus setting apart one family from the rest of mankind, was to preserve the true religion in the world, the existence of which became endangered by the prevalence of polytheism, and to prepare the way for the great work of redemption by Jesus Christ. God promised to protect, bless, and multiply his posterity in an extraordinary manner, and made the significant and cheering declaration, applicable to the Saviour, who, according to the flesh, descended in the line of Abraham, that in his seed all the families of the earth should be blessed.

Abraham having acquired a name by his wealth and piety, and having passed through various scenes of prosperity and trial, died at an advanced age, leaving behind him as the child of several sons, of whom only Isaac was the child of promise. Ishmael, by Hagar, the maid of Abraham's wife, became the progenitor of a distinct tribe or nation. The Arabs, to this day, claim to be descended from the son of Hagar. Two sons were the progeny of Isaac, viz.

The sons of Isaac are Esau and Jacob, the former of whom sold his birth-right to Jacob, who also, by artifice, obtained his father's blessing. Esau was the ancestor of the Edomites or Idumeans. In the line of Jacob, whose name was changed to Israel, were the Israelites descended. His twelve sons gave the names to the twelve tribes, of which the nation was composed. Jacob closed an eventful life, 1689 years B. C. in making a prophetic declaration of the future state of his descendants, and the period of the coming of the Messiah. He had previously been brought out of Canaan into Egypt, by means of his son Joseph, whom his brethren through envy and malice sold into that country.

The different occurrences by which Joseph became minister to the king of Egypt, speak the immediate interposition of divine providence, which was preparing for the accomplishment of the promises made to the patriarch Abraham. Of these occurrences, which carry on the history of the Hebrews for a period, the following summary is given.

Joseph, who was much loved by his father, and hated by his

brethren, upon a certain occasion, which was presented, fell into the power of the latter, who sought to slay him. This horrid design, however, being providentially prevented, they availed themselves of the opportunity of selling him to a company of Ishmaelite slave merchants, who carried him into Egypt, where he was bought by Potiphar, an officer of the court. Here, at length, he was wrongfully thrown into prison, by a false accusation of Potiphar's wife; but being proved to be an interpreter of dreams, he was released from his confinement, and introduced to the notice of Pharaoh, the Egyptian king, who, on a certain occasion, wanted his services in this capacity. His success in interpreting the king's dreams, and his subsequent conduct, procured for him the highest distinction; and he became the administrator of the government. During the famine which he had predicted in interpreting those dreams, and which reached the land of Canaan, all his brethren, except Benjamin, came to him, to buy corn. Joseph knew *them*, although they did not know him; and by an innocent contrivance, having brought them into Egypt the second time, with their brother Benjamin, he declared to them that he was Joseph, whom they had persecuted and sold. Their surprise, mortification, and terror, were at first overwhelming; but their distressing apprehensions were, in due time, alleviated by his assurances of pardon and kindness; and inviting his father and the whole family into Egypt, he allotted them a portion of the territory. Here he protected them, and under his auspices they became flourishing and happy.

Occurrences
in the life of
Joseph.

The family of
Jacob or Israel
invited into
Egypt.

Joseph continued to rule over Egypt after the death of Jacob, who had sojourned in that country seventeen years. His own decease, which occurred 1635 years B. C., left the Israelites without a protector. In less than forty years from this event, they found a cruel tyrant and oppressor in another king who knew not Joseph. This king perceiving that the Hebrews had become numerous and mighty, resolved to enfeeble them; and therefore condemned them to slavery, and ordered that every new-born son among them should be cast into the river. The object in view was defeated; for the people increased in an unexampled manner.

The Israelites
oppressed in
Egypt.

The history of the Israelites now assumed a very marked character. Oppressed by the Egyptian monarch, they cried unto God for deliverance, and a divine deliverance they experienced. Moses, a Hebrew by birth, whose life was preserved

in an extraordinary manner, notwithstanding the edict of the king, was selected as the instrument of saving his countrymen. He was in due time called to his work, and after a series of miracles, which he performed by the divine assistance,

Delivered
from their
bondage in
that land.

he led the people out from before Pharaoh, into the region bordering on the promised land. The consequence to many of the Egyptians, was their destruction; for Pharaoh and his army pursuing the Israelites through the Red Sea, were overwhelmed with its waters.

The people were no sooner delivered from the Egyptians, than they murmured against Moses, on account of the want of food; to satisfy them God sent first a great quantity of quails, and the next morning, manna, which

They mur-
mur after their
deliverance.

fell regularly every day except on Sabbath days, during the time in which they remained in the wilderness. Again, the people murmured for water, and Moses, by the Lord's command, caused a supply to issue from a rock. At this juncture the Amalekites attacked Israel, and were defeated by Joshua, who afterwards became their leader.

They receive
the law at Si-
nai.

The people soon after arrived at Mount Sinai, from which God gave them his law. During, however, the absence of Moses in the mount, they were guilty of an act of idolatry, in consequence of which three thousand of them were put to death.

In the course of the second year after the retreat from Egypt, Moses numbered the children of Israel, from twenty

The people
numbered the
2d. year after
their retreat.

years old and upwards, and there were found six hundred and three thousand five hundred and fifty men, able to go to war, besides the Levites. About this time, twelve men were sent to spy the land of Canaan, who, with the exception of Joshua and Caleb, reported unfavourably; a circumstance which caused the people to murmur. Upon this offence, God condemned all those who were twenty years and upwards when they came out of Egypt, to die in the wilderness, except Joshua and Caleb. As a punishment for their

They wander
40 years in the
wilderness.

murmurs, the Israelites began to travel in the wilderness, 1489 years B. C. At this juncture, Korah, Dathan, and Abiram, revolting against Moses, were swallowed by the earth with two hundred and fifty of their associates. After wandering in the wilderness forty years, and frequently rebelling against God, this people were conducted by the hand of Moses in sight of

Canaan, when he died, without entering it himself. His death occurred on Mount Nebo, in the land of Moab, after he had first taken a view of the promised resting place of Israel. Moses died on mount Nebo.

The successor of Moses was Joshua, who has the honour of having conducted the people at last into Canaan. Having led them to the banks of the Jordan, whose waters divided to afford them a passage, he brought them safely over it, into their fair inheritance. He conquered thirty-one cities in the course of six years. Joshua conducted the Israelites into Canaan.

The people, though they had been highly favoured, were perpetually inclined to forsake the worship of Jehovah, and to pollute themselves with the abominations of the heathen, who dwelt among and around them. For these sins, they were repeatedly brought into bondage and consequent distress. With a view to their deliverance at such times, certain leaders, called *Judges*, were divinely appointed, who directed the people, with some intermission, during the space of three hundred and fifty years. Occasions arose in which these leaders performed the most meritorious services. They defeated the enemies of their country, and contributed much to establish the nation in its possessions. The people paid a high respect to these officers, and also to the priests, but they acknowledged no other king than God. Judges raised up for them.

As this state of things, so long continued, became irksome to the Israelites, and they desired a king, so as to be like the nations around them, a king was granted to them, but with the expressed disapprobation of their great spiritual Ruler. Saul, the son of Kish, was the first king of Israel. Having been privately anointed by Samuel, he was afterwards publicly proclaimed, 1079 years B. C. The nomination of Saul took place by divine instruction, but may be admired on the plainest principles of human policy. He was selected from a tribe which could not well be an object of jealousy, like the great rival tribes of Judah and Ephraim, and he belonged to a part of the country which was most exposed to enemies, and which of course felt most interested in repelling them. Besides, nature had marked him out for no common man. He possessed a tall and striking person—an eminent distinction in the East—and he proved himself, at times, capable of lofty aims. His reign was prosperous at first; he gained important victories over

The community of the Israelites becomes a monarchy.

Saul the first king of Israel.

his enemies, particularly the Ammonites, Philistines, and Amalekites; but his evil propensities at length obtaining the mastery over him, he spent the last part of his life in a most unhappy manner, and met with signal disasters and ill success in the management of his kingdom. He perished miserably. Being at war with the Philistines, his army was routed, three of his sons were slain, and he himself having received a wound, and fearing to fall into the hands of his enemies, took a sword and fell upon it.

Perishes miserably.

He was succeeded by David, who had been previously anointed king. This prince reigned at first only over the tribe of Judah; but after the death of Ishbosheth, a son of Saul, who had assumed the government of the tribes, he reigned over the whole of Israel. He spent a very active and perilous life, and among the people whom he conquered were the Philistines, the Moabites, the Ammonites, and the Syrians. By his wise and vigorous administration he raised his people to the highest pitch of national prosperity and happiness. He had, towards the latter part of his reign, some domestic troubles, and was in danger from an insurrection of his subjects, a portion of whom had attached themselves to his ambitious son Absalom; but he lived to see his enemies destroyed, and he left a rich and flourishing realm to his successor.

His character. David, though he greatly erred in one or two instances, was a man of distinguished talents, bravery, and piety. As a composer of sacred poetry for the use of the church, he will be remembered and admired to the end of the world.

The wise and rich Solomon was his son and successor. From the accession of this prince to the throne of the Israel-Solomon king ites, a period of profound peace and prosperity of Israel.

was enjoyed by that people throughout his reign. The most important undertaking of Solomon was the building and dedication of the temple of the Lord at Jerusalem. This temple was completed in seven years. It was a most

Builds the magnificent, sumptuous, and costly edifice. The temple. value of the materials, and the perfection of the workmanship, rank it among the most celebrated structures of antiquity. It was not very large, being little more than ninety feet in length, thirty in breadth, and forty-five in height; but was finely proportioned, and, together with a grand porch, was splendidly ornamented.

As soon as Solomon had finished this noble structure, he

employed his artificers upon three other buildings, two for himself, and a third for Pharaoh's daughter. He was occupied almost thirteen years in erecting them; so that he finished three famous edifices, with all their costly furniture, utensils, and ornaments, within the space of twenty years. To supply all these, and his other vast expenses, he built a navy upon the coast of the Red sea, and put it under the care of some expert Tyrian sailors, who, with his own men, went with it to Ophir, which was probably situated on some part of the eastern coast of Africa, and in about three years brought back an immense weight of gold and silver, besides several kinds of precious stones, spices, ebony, and other rarities. Besides these, there was the traffic of the Mediterranean, carried on through the Tyrian merchants, and the inland commerce of Egypt, Arabia, and Assyria, all of which were highly important. From these various sources it was, that the precious metals, and all other valuable commodities, were in such abundance, that, in the figurative language of the sacred historian, "silver was in Jerusalem as stones, and cedar trees as sycamores."

Besides the works already mentioned, Solomon built some fortresses in Lebanon, probably to secure a free communication between his kingdom and that of Syria. He built two cities, as stations, to protect his inland commerce; these were Tadmor and Baalath, the one the celebrated Palmyra, and the other Baalath. These, and many others, which time forbid us to particularize, were the works by which his peaceful reign was distinguished. No wars occurred, except in the instance of bringing under his yoke the remainder of the Canaanites, and making them tributary.

Solomon exceeded in wisdom all who went before him; but in his old age he took many wives and concubines out of the idolatrous nations around him, who corrupted his heart. The Lord, therefore, declared by the prophet Abijah, that he would divide the kingdom after his death, and give ten tribes to Jeroboam, one of his domestics. As an immediate punishment of his effeminacy and idolatry, the Lord stirred up certain adversaries against him; and though the principal evil threatened against Israel, was not to occur in his day, yet he had the mortification of knowing that it would be inflicted under the administration of his son, and that his own conduct was the procuring cause. We cannot but think that he repented of his awful defection

from duty, though nothing is recorded in the Bible on this subject; and it is certain that all ought to be profited by the memorials which he has left of his wisdom, and by his sound religious maxims. He died after a reign of forty years, and with him expired the glory and the power of the Hebrew monarchy.

Rehoboam, the son of Solomon, began to reign over the Israelites 975 years B. C. Having refused to lighten the

Rehoboam yoke his father had imposed on his subjects, ten succeeds Solo- tribes revolted, and followed Jeroboam, as had mon. been denounced by the prophet. The tribes of

Judah and Benjamin alone remained faithful to Rehoboam.

The national Thus the national union was dissolved, and union dissolv- the Hebrew kingdom never recovered this fatal ed. blow. From this time Judah and Israel are

separate kingdoms. Although Rehoboam, at first, thought of having recourse to arms to compel, if possible, the revolted portion of his people to submission, he thought better of the subject, and turned his attention wholly to the fortifying of his own dominions.

The kingdom of the *Ten Tribes*, or the Israelites, was governed by a succession of vicious and idolatrous monarchs; Jeroboam king and wars and feuds, treachery and murder, of the Ten marked their history in a shocking manner. Tribes.

Jeroboam, the son of Nebat, of the tribe of Ephraim, was their first king. It is emphatically said of him in scripture, that he *made Israel to sin*. To prevent his subjects from going to Jerusalem to sacrifice, which place he

feared might become again the centre of the national union, he set up two golden calves, the one in Bethel and the other in Dan, which the

people worshipped. Concerning these calves it has been observed, that they were not, strictly speaking, idols, but were speciously contrived as symbolical representations, probably preserving some resemblance to the cherubim, of which the ox was one of the four constituent parts. Still, they were set up in no less flagrant violation of the law, than if they had been the deities of Egypt, to which they bore a great likeness. For this conduct God declared that his whole house should

be cut off. In a conflict with Abijah, the king war by the of Judah, Jeroboam was totally defeated, with king of Judah. the loss of five hundred thousand men. The disaster preyed on his mind, and he never after recovered his power or enterprize.

He was succeeded by Nadab, his son, who had for his

successors Baasha, Elah, and Zimri. The wickedness of these kings is the most remarkable circumstance in their reigns. Zimri enjoyed the crown only seven days. The beautiful city Tirzah, in which he was besieged by Omri, being taken, he burnt himself to death in his palace. Omri then occupied the throne; he built Samaria, or transferred the royal residence to that place, which thenceforth became the capital of his kingdom, and was so long the hated rival of Jerusalem.

Several other wicked kings succeed as Nadab, Baasha, Elah, &c.

The apostacy of the ten tribes, and the wickedness of their kings, did not reach their height till the accession of Ahab, the son of Omri, B. C. 919. This prince married Jezebel, the fierce and cruel daughter of the king of Sidon. Under her influence, the Sidonian worship of Baal, the sun, was introduced; his temples were openly built and consecrated; and this cruel and persecuting idolatry threatened to exterminate the ancient religion. The prophets were put to death, one hundred only having escaped by lying concealed in a cave; yet these intrepid defenders of the God of their fathers still arose to remonstrate against these impious innovations; till, at length, Elijah, the greatest of the whole, took up the contest, and defied and triumphed over the cruelty, both of the king and his blood-thirsty consort. They each perished miserably; their death happening by God's avenging on them the blood of Naboth, whom they had killed, because he refused, as the law of Moses enjoined him, to sell them the fee of the inheritance of his father. Ahab was slain in battle by a random shot, as had been foretold by Micaiah the prophet; Jezebel perished at Jehu's command, by being precipitated from a window according to the prophecies of Elijah.

Ahab king of Israel.

Establishes idolatry.

The prophets remonstrate against the wickedness of Ahab and Jezebel, his wife.

Ahaziah, Jehoram, Jehu, Jehoahaz, and Jehoash, were the successors, in turn, of Ahab; but they heard and saw, unconcerned, the miracles of Elijah and Elisha, whom God made use of in endeavours to bring the Israelites to repentance. It is unnecessary to notice each of these kings in the separate acts of their reigns. Of Jehu it may be observed, that he was a captain under Jehoram, was anointed king by the prophet Elisha; and though a wicked man, was the instrument of executing the Lord's vengeance upon his impious contemporaries. He killed Jehoram and the seventy sons of Ahab; and after having slain all the priests of Baal, he de-

Ahab is succeeded by Ahaziah, Jehoram, Jehu, &c. kings of a similar character.

stroyed the images, and the house of their god. Concerning Jehoash it must be remarked, that he was successful as a warrior. He defeated Benhadad, king of Syria, in three battles. In a war against Amaziah, king of Judah, he took him prisoner, broke down the wall of Jerusalem, plundered the temple and the king's palace, and carried away the spoil to Samaria.

The kingdom of Israel now began to recover its strength, after having been brought low, under its latter kings, by the Israel recovers power of Syria. Jehoash II. an able prince, had its strength succeeded Jehoash, B. C. 822, and pursuing his under Jeho- father's successes, re-established the whole fron- am. tier, from Hamath to the Dead sea; even Damas-

cus, the Syrian capital, surrendered to his forces. But the kingdom which was to remain in the line of Jehu to the fourth

generation, at the death of Jehoash, fell into a A state of an- frightful state of anarchy. At length, after eleven archy follows. years of tumult, his son Zachariah obtained the

sceptre, but was speedily put to death by Shallum; Shallum,

in his turn, by Menahem; Menahem, a sangri- Zachariah nary prince, reigned ten years, during which and others suc- the fatal power of the great Assyrian empire ceed. was rapidly advancing to universal conquest.

Pul, the monarch who ruled at Nineveh, was now pushing his victories over Syria, and began to threaten the independence of Israel. Menahem only delayed the final servitude, by submission and tribute, which he wrung from his people by heavy exactions. This prince was succeeded by his son, Pekahiah, who, in ten years after, was put to death by a new usurper, Pekah, the son of Remaliah.

The dissensions between Israel and Judah, which had all along existed, now arose to a great height. Pe-

kah was the last able or powerful king of the Pekah, the last able king ten tribes. In conjunction with Rezin, king of of Israel. Syria, he made war against Judah. In one of

the engagements, Judah lost one hundred and twenty thousand men, and many more were carried into captivity. These latter, however, were soon restored to their homes. The kingdom of Israel was now fast hastening to its end. Pekah was assassinated; another period of anarchy lasted for several years, till at length the sceptre fell into the feeble hands of Hoshea, who had instigated the murder of Pekah. A new and still more ambitious monarch, Shalmaneser, now wielded the power of Assyria. Hoshea attempted to avert the final subjugation of his kingdom by the payment of a tribute, but being detected in a secret correspondence with the king of Egypt,

called So, the Assyrian marched into the kingdom, besieged Samaria, which after an obstinate resistance of three years, surrendered, and thus terminated for ever the independent kingdom of Israel.

The kingdom of Israel yields to the Assyrian power and exists no more.

Pul and Tiglath Pileser had already swept away a great part of the population from Syria, and the Transjordanic tribes: and Shalmaneser, after the capture of Samaria, carried off vast numbers of the remaining tribes to a mountainous region between Assyria and Media. From this period, history loses sight of the ten tribes as a distinct people. A few remained in their native country, and became intermixed with strangers. The descendants of these mingled races were afterwards known by the name of Samaritans. What became of those who were carried away, is a matter of conjecture to this day. Some suppose that they were totally lost and absorbed in the nations among whom they settled. The learned Prideaux is of this opinion. Others find reason to believe that they still exist in some unknown and inaccessible regions, where they await the final restoration of the twelve tribes to their native land. Others even trace the Jewish features, language, and religion, in different tribes, such as the Afghans of India, or, with still more improbability, the aborigines of America.

Its not known what became of the ten tribes of whom the most were carried away.

To return to the period when the nation of Israel was separated into two great communities, we have to observe, that Rehoboam, whose sceptre was confined to the tribes of Judah and Benjamin, had scarce continued three years in the service of the true God, before he fell into the idolatry of the bordering nations. For this enormity, God stirred up a potent adversary against him, Shishak, king of Egypt, who took many of his fenced cities, and plundered the treasures of the temple and palace of Solomon.

Rehoboam king of Judah fell into idolatry.

Concerning the kings of Judah after this time, it may be remarked in general, that several of them were good and pious men, and adhered to the worship of Jehovah. Others of them imitated the profligate kings of Israel. The people whom they governed, and who have survived to the present time, are called *Jews*, in distinction from Israelites, the name once applied to the whole twelve tribes.

The people of Judah called Jews.

The successor of Rehoboam was Abijah, who assumed the government B. C. 958, and reigned three years. His reign

Abijah the
successor of
Rehoboam.

was signalized by his victory over Jeroboam, as already related. Asa, his son, next ascended the throne, who proved to be a prudent and religious prince. The first ten years of his reign were blessed with peace. At the expiration of that time, he saw his kingdom attacked by a prodigious number of Cushites, with Zerah, the Ethiopian, at their head. Asa, relying on the

Asa repelled
the Cushites.

God of armies, repelled them with success. He pursued the wise policy of establishing the national religion in all its splendour and influence, and he had the pleasure of seeing multitudes flock to him from several of the revolted tribes, whom his zeal drew away from the king of Israel.

After a reign of forty-one years, Asa was succeeded, B. C. 918, by his son, Jehoshaphat. This prince is honourably spoken of in scripture, for his piety and justice. In

Jehoshaphat
is king.

the third year of his reign, he sent some of the principal officers of his court, with a competent number of priests and Levites, with copies of the Pentateuch, to instruct his people, throughout his kingdom, in the true religion. At the same time, he fortified all the considerable places of the land, and put garrisons in them, as well as in those which his father had taken from the kings of Israel.

The nation
is prospered.

His kingdom was in a high state of prosperity: both the Philistines and Arabs, were reduced to the necessity of paying tribute. Jehoshaphat was

Jehoram
and Ahaziah
kings.

succeeded by his son Jehoram, and his grandson Ahaziah, who had for his successor the princess Athaliah, in whose reign the affairs of Judah altered for the worse. Jehoram having married Athaliah, daughter of Ahab, was seduced into the idolatry of that wicked family, which drew upon him the vengeance of heaven. Jehoram and Ahaziah, with the greater part of the royal family, were slain about the same time with those of Israel, by Jehu, who imagined them to be friends and allies of the house of Ahab.

The kingdom
suffers under
Athaliah.

Athaliah showed herself a worthy descendant of that wicked stock, and the most bloody scenes defiled the royal palace of Jerusalem. She seized the vacant throne, massacred all the seed royal, excepting one child, Joash, who was secreted in the temple by his father's sister, the wife of the high priest. Athaliah maintained her oppressive government for six years, during which the temple was plundered, and the worship of Baal established. She met with a deserved fate.

Joash succeeded Athaliah. He reigned with justice, as long

as Jehoiada the high priest lived. After his death having fallen into idolatry, Zechariah, the son of Jehoiada, re-
 proved him for this sin, and was stoned by the king's order. God then raised against him the king of Syria, who plundered Jerusalem. His own servants also conspired against him, and slew him in his bed, in the fortieth year of his reign. The first act of Amaziah, the son and successor of Joash, was to do justice on the murderers of his father; but with merciful conformity to the law, unusual in such times, he did not involve the children in the treason of their fathers. This prince was prospered in the early part of his reign, but his success in war filled his heart with pride and vanity. His subjects having become disaffected towards him, he fell a victim to a conspiracy within the walls of his palace: he fled to Lachish, but was slain there. His son Azariah, or Uzziah, assumed the royal power, 809, B. C., and commenced a long, religious, and therefore prosperous reign of fifty-one years. He made successful wars against the Philistines, and Arabians. Intoxicated, however, with prosperity, he went into the temple to burn incense upon the altar, and the Lord struck him with leprosy for his presumption. Jotham took the reins of government, during the life-time of his father Uzziah, and proved to be a wise and pious prince.

Joash succeeded Athaliah.

Amaziah reigned at first with success.

Falls by a conspiracy.

Azariel his successor.

Jotham king.

The son and successor of Jotham was Ahaz, whose impieties made his reign peculiarly unfortunate and inglorious. He was scarcely seated on his throne, when his kingdom was invaded by the joint forces of Pekah, king of Israel, and Rezin, king of Syria. In his extremity, he had recourse to the king of Assyria, whose assistance he purchased with all the gold and silver he could find in the temple and city, and with the promise of a yearly tribute. Delivered by the assistance of Tiglath-pileser from his enemies, he forgot his danger, and instead of adoring Jehovah, shut up his temple, whilst he reared others in every corner of Jerusalem, and throughout the land offered sacrifices to the Syrian gods. In this manner he finished his impious reign, and was succeeded by his son, Hezekiah. The first act of the new king was to restore all the branches of the worship of God, which were entirely neglected, in the former reign. While thus employed, he was blessed with success equal to his piety. Finding himself strong enough to assert his independence, he

Ahaz established the Syrian worship.

Hezekiah reformed the nation.

refused to pay the tribute which the Assyrians had exacted from his predecessor, and taking the field against the Philistines, his arms were attended with such success, that in a short time, he regained all that had been lost during the unfortunate reign of Ahaz. Sennacherib, the king of Assyria, upon the refusal of Hezekiah to comply with the stipulation of Ahaz, invaded his country with a large army. They had just returned from Ethiopia, flushed with victory, and breathing destruction against the whole kingdom; but Hezekiah trusted

Is delivered in God, and thus was released from danger. Before Sennacherib had committed any act of hostility against Judah, the best part of his army

was smitten by an angel in one night. This dreadful judgment alarmed the proud Assyrian monarch, and caused him to retire, with the utmost confusion, into his capital, where he was soon after assassinated by his two sons. Hezekiah died in peace in the twenty-ninth year of his reign.

He was succeeded by his son Manasseh, a king to whose crimes and irreligion, the Jews mainly attribute the dreadful

Manasseh evils, which shortly after consigned them to ruin succeeds He- and slavery. Abandoned of God, for a time, he zekiah.

was allowed to fall into the hands of Esarhaddon, the new sovereign of Assyria. In the dungeons of Babylon he learned wisdom and piety. Upon his sincere repentance, he was permitted to regain not only his liberty, but his kingdom. His son Amon, who succeeded, following the early career of his father, fell a victim to a conspiracy among his own officers. His successor, Josiah, proved

After Amon, Josiah comes to the throne and reforms the people. to be one of the most pious of all the princes of Judah, and quite reformed the Jewish nation, a circumstance, which, for a time, suspended the

judgments of heaven against that people. He reigned thirty-one years in profound peace. He afterwards engaged in battle with the king of Egypt, in the valley of Megiddo, where he received a wound, which occasioned his death.

The Egyptian king, who was Pharaoh Necho, on his return to Egypt, took Jehoahaz, a son of Josiah, prisoner, whom the people had elected king of Judah, and placing his elder

Jehoiakim brother on the throne, whose name he changed king, and does from Eliakim into Jehoiakim, compelled him to wickedly.

pay a hundred talents of silver, and one talent of gold, as an acknowledgment of vassalage. Jehoiakim, although warned by the writings of several prophets, to conduct himself uprightly, added every wickedness which invention

could suggest, to the horrible abominations of his ancestors. At last God gave him and his city into the hands of Nebuchadnezzar, who was just returned from the conquest of Egypt. This event happened in the fourth year of Jehoiakim's reign. Jerusalem was pillaged, and all the most beautiful youths of the palace were sent captives to Babylon. Jehoiakim was at first put into bonds, and intended to be sent away also, but upon his submission and promise to pay a yearly tribute, the victor left him as a kind of viceroy over his kingdom. But, whilst Nebuchadnezzar was employed in other conquests, the king of Judah renounced his subjection, and refused to pay the tribute. The Assyrian monarch, exasperated at this conduct, sent an army into Judea, which laid waste the whole kingdom. This army carried away three thousand and twenty prisoners, took and murdered the king, and dragged his carcass out of the city gates, where they left it unburied.

His son Jehoiachin was made king; but not gaining the approbation of the king of Babylon, was, after a reign of three months, with his wives, mother, and the chief officers of the realm, led captive to Babylon by Nebuchadnezzar, who placed on the throne the nineteenth and last king of Judah, Zedekiah, another son of Josiah. But this prince, contrary to the advice of the prophet Jeremiah, rebelling against his benefactor, was, in the eleventh year of his reign, conquered by the king of Babylon. The king, in an attempt to break through the besieging forces, was seized, his children slain before his face, his eyes put out, and thus the last of the royal house of David, blind and childless, was led away into a foreign prison. Jerusalem was destroyed, the temple demolished, and the people were carried captive to Babylon, where they continued *seventy years*, in fulfilment of prophecy.

From the books of Ezekiel and Daniel, we learn what the captives endured on their way to Babylon; and it seems from the event, that the influence of adversity was very favourable on numbers of this people. It brought them to repentance, and engaged them in the worship and ordinances of their religion. Having remained in captivity during the appointed period, they were permitted by Cyrus, the Persian king, who had conquered Babylon, to return to their native land, 536 years B. C. This was accomplished under the direction of Zerubbabel and Joshua,

Nebuchad-
nezzar took
Jerusalem.

Jehoiachin is
king, and car-
ried into Baby-
lon.

Zedekiah the
last king of
Judah.

The people
carried away
captive, and
remained in
captivity 70
years.

Restored by
Cyrus.

their leaders. They soon began the rebuilding of the temple, but their enemies prevented them from making any progress.

Rebuild the temple. Several years afterwards, they commenced the work anew, and completed it in the space of four years, 516 B. C. Upon this event they celebrated the first passover.

The Jews, in their dependent state, continued to enjoy a degree of prosperity under the sovereigns of Persia, after the time of Cyrus. His successors, down to the era of Alexander, had, in general, treated them with much kindness. Darius, son of Cyrus, favoured the Jews during his long reign. Xerxes

Favored by confirmed their privileges. Under Artaxerxes, the successors they were still more favoured through the influence of his queen, Esther, a Jewess. From this

prince, who is styled in scripture Ahasuerus, Ezra, a man of priestly descent, obtained very liberal presents among the Jews remaining in Babylonia, to be applied to the service of the temple, and authority to re-establish the government according to the divine constitution, 480 B. C. Several years afterwards, under the same prince, Nehemiah, his cup-bearer, obtained

The walls leave to go to Jerusalem, and rebuild its walls. of Jerusalem He and Joiada, the high priest, reformed many rebuilt. abuses respecting tithes, the observation of the sabbath, and the marrying of strange wives.

The Jewish people being again settled by Nehemiah, were governed by their high priests, and the council of the elders called the Sanhedrin. Under Alexander the Great they continued to enjoy these immunities and privileges, and he even exempted them from paying tribute every seventh year. His death proved a calamity to the Jews. From this time, 323

Judea invaded B. C., Judea was successively invaded and subdued by the Egyptians and Syrians, and the Egyptians, &c. habitants were reduced to bondage. Under the priesthood of Onias I., Ptolemy, governor of Egypt, taking advantage of the circumstance that the Jews would not fight on the sabbath, captured Jerusalem on that day, and carried off 100,000 persons, whom, however, he afterwards treated kindly. When Eleazar was high priest, he sent to Ptolemy Philadelphus six men of every tribe to translate the sacred scriptures into Greek. This translation is the celebrated one called the *Septuagint*, 277 B. C.

In 170 B. C., Jason, the brother of the high priest, on false reports of the death of Antiochus Epiphanes, who at this time held the Jews in subjection, raised great disturbances in Jerusalem. with a view to secure the high priesthood. Antio-

chus, irritated by the frequent revolts of the Jews, marched to Jerusalem, slew 80,000 people, took 40,000 captives, and then entered the temple, and plundered the treasures. This prince having commanded the Jews to observe the rites of the heathen, and to eat of the sacrifices, some of the more conscientious among them chose rather to suffer death, among whom were a mother and her seven sons, who expired in dreadful tortures. The same year the king's commissioner, who had been intrusted with this iniquitous business, was killed by Matthias and his five sons, who thereupon fled into the wilderness. This was the commencement of that noble resistance which was made against the Syrian power, under the Maccabees, and which eventuated in the independence of the nation.

Judas Maccabæus, the bravest of the sons of Matthias, having been chosen by the Jews for their prince and governor, made war against Antiochus, and defeated several of his generals. The monarch hearing of the defeat of his troops in Judea, took an oath that he would destroy the whole nation. As he hastened to Jerusalem, he fell from his chariot, and died miserably. In a battle with a general of one of his successors, Judas was killed. He was succeeded by his brother, Jonathan, who, after many signal services rendered to his country, was basely murdered by Tryphon, an officer of the young Antiochus, who aspired at the same time to the crown of Syria. Jonathan was succeeded by Simon his brother, who subdued the cities of Gaza and Joppa, and cleared Judea of many of the Syrians. He was murdered in the midst of his conquests by his son-in-law, Ptolemy Physcon.

John Hyrcanus, son of Simon Maccabæus, uniting in his person the offices of high priest and generalissimo of the army, subdued the enemies of his country, ceased to pay homage to the kings of Syria, firmly established his government, and is celebrated for his many valuable qualities. He not only delivered his nation from the oppression of Syria, but he made some conquests both in Arabia and Phœnicia, turned his victorious arms against the Samaritans, and subdued Idumea. At the time of his death he had raised the Jewish nation to a very considerable degree of wealth, prosperity, and happiness. He reigned twenty-eight years. His sons assumed the title, as well as the power of kings; and the high-priesthood remained in his family, though not in the person of the monarch. His de-

Antiochus, who held the Jews in subjection, punishes their rebellion.

The Maccabees resist the Syrian power.

John Hyrcanus liberates his country.

scendants are distinguished in the history of the Jewish nation by the appellation of the *Asmonean dynasty*, which continued about 120 years. His son Aristobulus was his immediate successor. This prince caused himself to be crowned king of

His son Aristobulus, the first that was called king after the captivity. Judah, and was the first who assumed that title after the Babylonish captivity. It is recorded that he caused his brother Antigonus to be killed on suspicion of disloyalty; that his mother, claiming a right to the sovereignty by virtue of the will of Hyrcanus, was barbarously starved to

death; that his other brothers were kept in close confinement. He was fortunate in war; but his successes were soon interrupted by sickness; and the deep remorse he felt on account of the treatment of his mother, produced a vomiting of blood, which speedily closed his wicked life and reign.

Alexander Jannæus, brother to the late king, succeeded; he considerably extended the kingdom of Judea, by the conquest

Alexander Jannæus his successor. of all Iturea and some parts of Syria; but the many services which he rendered his country were quite overlooked, in consequence of his

Alexandra and others succeeded him. cruelty to his subjects. Although he left two sons, he was immediately succeeded by his wife, Alexandra, who gave the throne to his eldest son, named

Hyrcanus, a very weak and indolent prince. His younger brother, Aristobulus, at first disturbed his succession; but he was finally established on his throne by Pompey, who carried Aristobulus and his family captives to Rome. Alexander, one of the sons of Aristobulus, escaping from that city, disturbed the peace of Judea, until he was surprised and slain by the Scipios, two captains under Pompey. Antigonus, a son of Alexander, assisted by the Parthians, dethroned Hyrcanus, and cut off his ears; but this cruelty was revenged, Antigonus being soon after slain by Mark Antony. His brother, Aristobulus, who was retained prisoner with the Parthians, returned to Palestine, where he lived contented under the government of Herod, who had been nominated as the successor of Antigonus by the Romans.

Herod I. was an Ascalonite, and was surnamed the Great. Created king of Judea (37 B. C.) by Antony, he was afterwards confirmed in the regal possession by Augustus. His reign was splendid, but distinguished by a singular degree of profligacy. Some time after his

His wicked establishment on the throne, in order to please Mariamne, the daughter of Hyrcanus, whom he had married, he appointed her brother, Aristobulus, high-priest;

but perceiving that he was much beloved by the Jews, he caused him to be drowned while bathing. After the battle of Actium, he went to Rhodes to meet Augustus, between whom there existed a peculiar friendship. Upon his return, he condemned to death his wife, Mariamne, and her mother, Alexandra. From this hour his life was a continual scene of misery and ferocity. At the instigation of his third son, he sentenced to death Aristobulus and Alexander, his children by Mariamne, and the next year Antipater himself experienced the same fate. In his reign, the sceptre being, as prophesied, departed from Judah, Jesus Christ was born, according to the vulgar era, A. M. 4004, but really four years sooner. His birth greatly troubled Herod and the principal Jews, who became apprehensive of new wars. After ascertaining the place of his nativity, Herod determined on his death, and supposed he had effected it; but, by the providence of God, the child was removed out of his reach. By this time, Judea was fast sinking into a Roman province, and Herod, instead of being head of the Hebrew religious public, became more and more on a level with the other vassal kings of Rome. He died of a most loathsome and painful disease, or complication of diseases, which we are authorized to believe was the direct judgment of God upon him, for his enormous wickedness.

Herod was succeeded by his eldest son, Archelaus, who had the title of king, but possessed only a tetrarchy, or fourth part of the kingdom of Judea. The rest of the country was divided into three more tetrarchies, which were those of Galilee and Petræa, that of Iturea, and that of Abilene. Archelaus governed with great injustice and cruelty, and on this account was condemned, after a solemn hearing before Augustus. He was banished to Vienne, in Gaul, his estates confiscated, and Judea reduced in form to a Roman province. His successor in the government of this country was Herod II., named Antipas, who married his brother Philip's wife. This was the incestuous marriage, on account of which John the Baptist reproved Herod, as mentioned in the New Testament. It was in the time of this Herod, that our Saviour's crucifixion, resurrection, and ascension, occurred. Herod II. enjoyed only the tetrarchy of Galilee and Perea. He was succeeded by Herod Agrippa, the son of Aristobulus, grandson of Herod the Great. Caligula, the Roman emperor, invested him with the tetrarchy of his

Jesus Christ
is born.

Archelaus
succeeds He-
rod the great.

Judea redu-
ced to a Ro-
man province.

Herod Anti-
pas reigns.

Herod Agrip-
pa on the
throne.

uncle Philip, and conferred on him the title of king. The other tetrarchies fell to his possession shortly afterwards. It was this Herod who caused the apostle James to be martyred, the apostle Peter to be imprisoned, and was himself smitten by an angel and devoured by worms. His son, Agrippa Minor, succeeded, and was the last king of the Jews. He, of course, received his title and authority from the Roman emperors. Suspicion attached to him of having lived in incest with his sister Berenice; in other respects, he bore a good character, being equitable in his administration, of a generous disposition, and paying a strict attention to the externals of religion. It was before this Agrippa that Paul pleaded in defence of the gospel.

All things, however, tended to a rupture between the Romans, and the Jews, their subjects. From the time of Herod Agrippa, Judea had been the theatre of many cruelties, rapines, and oppressions, arising from contentions between the Jewish priests; the robberies of numerous bands of banditti, which infested the country; but more than all, from the rapacious and flagitious conduct of the Roman governors. The last of these governors was Gessius Florus, whom history represents as a monster of cruelty and wickedness, and whom the Jews regarded rather as a bloody executioner, sent to torture, than as a magistrate to govern them. During the government of Felix, his predecessor, a dispute arising between the Jews and

The Jews Syrians, about the city of Cesarea, their respective claims were referred to the Emperor Nero, the Romans. at Rome. The decision being made in favour of the Syrians, the Jews immediately took arms to avenge their cause. Florus, regarding the growing insurrection with inhuman pleasure, took only inefficient means to quell it. In this state of things, Nero gave orders to Vespasian, his gene-

Vespasian marches against them. ral, to march into Judea with a powerful army. Accordingly, accompanied by his son Titus, at the head of 60,000 well disciplined troops, he passed into Galilee, the conquest of which country was not long after achieved. While Vespasian was thus spreading the victories of the Roman arms, and was preparing more effectually to curb the still unbroken spirit of the Jews, the intelligence of his election to the imperial throne, induced him to depart for Rome; but he left the best of his troops with his son, ordering him to besiege Jerusalem, and utterly to destroy it.

Titus prosecutes the enterprise. Titus prosecuted the enterprise with diligence, and besieging the city, he took it within a few months, after the most obstinate resistance of

which history perhaps gives an account. Twice during the siege he offered them very favourable terms, but they were so infatuated, that they not only refused his offers, but insulted his messenger, Flavius Josephus, in the most wanton and virulent manner. After this conduct, there remained no more mercy for the Jews. Titus caused the hands of those who had voluntarily sought shelter in the Roman camp, to be cut off, and sent them back to the city, and others he crucified in the sight of their countrymen. Famine, in the mean time, was performing its dreadful work within the walls; and pestilence, its attendant, raged beyond control. Thousands died daily, and were carried out of the gates to be buried at the public expense; until, being unable to hurry the wretched victims to the grave so fast as they fell, they filled whole houses with them, and shut them up. When Titus entered the city, he gave it up to be plundered by the soldiers, and most of the inhabitants were put to the sword. In pursuance of this general order, the city was destroyed to its foundations, and even the ruins of the temple were demolished. Josephus says, that the number of the prisoners taken during the whole time of the war, was ninety-seven thousand, and the number killed in the city during the same period, amounted to one million. The Jews, who remained in the country, now paid tribute to the Romans, and were entirely subject to their laws.

Jerusalem
is destroyed.

After this event, Jerusalem was partially rebuilt, and in 118 A. C. the inhabitants again attempted to rebel, but were speedily overcome. Adrian, the emperor, incensed at the conduct of this stubborn people, resolved to level the city with the earth, that is to say, those new buildings which had been erected by the Jews, and to sow salt in the ground, on which the place had stood. Thus was fulfilled a prophecy of our Saviour, who foretold, that neither in the city, nor in the temple, should one stone be left upon another. This, therefore, may be called the final destruction of Jerusalem, which took place forty-seven years after that effected by Titus. Adrian, however, saw fit, from some cause, to build the city over anew, to which he gave the name *Ælia Capitolina*. It was a short-lived change, for when the Empress Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great, visited the city, she found it in a forlorn and ruinous state.

Is partially
rebuilt.

The national existence of the Jews, may be considered as having terminated with the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus. They were no longer one people, or in a situation to preserve their in-

The Jews ex-
it no more as
a nation, but
are scattered
over the earth.

stitutions as a body. Though numbers remained in their native land, yet vast multitudes were dispersed over the face of the earth, on which they have ever since been wanderers. The reader of the Bible will see in these events a remarkable fulfilment of the predictions of the ancient prophets, and of our Saviour; and he will also learn the evil and danger of despising divine admonitions, and abusing religious privileges. When we meet with one of the descendants of Abraham, (and in what place are they not to be met with?) we see a miracle—a living confirmation of the divine veracity—a proof that the Bible is true, and an indubitable testimony that there is a God who judgeth in the earth.

It is not our design, neither is it compatible with the brevity of this sketch, to trace continuously the history of the Jews,

In the history of the Jews, it remains only to describe their condition in more modern times. In their wide dispersions, or in the various countries in which they have existed, since the great event above recorded. All the purpose that remains to be answered, in regard to this division of our subject, is to furnish the reader with a brief account of the condition of this remarkable people, in later times, chiefly within the last and present centuries. Their residences and numbers, as recently ascertained, will also be given. Abating the circumstance, that the state of most nations has ameliorated since the era of their dispersion, it will be naturally inferred, that such as their condition now is, such it has substantially been for centuries. They have, in

They have suffered less from persecution than formerly. most instances, reaped the fruits of the common improvement; and those persecutions to which they are known to have been exposed, in past ages, have, in some measure at least, ceased with the spirit which gave birth to these and other instances of bigoted and revengeful feelings. Still it is not to be denied, that the Jews, from certain peculiarities in their character and manner of life, seem likely to be the last people, who, throughout the world, will enjoy the happiness of perfect equality in rights and privileges, with the rest of their fellow-men.

The Jews, though widely scattered over the earth, and constituting a portion of almost every nation, present the singular phenomenon of a people subsisting for ages, without their civil and religious policy, and thus surviving even their political existence. Unlike other conquered nations,

The Jews have survived they have never mingled with their conquerors, their political and lost their separate name and character, but existence. they invariably constitute a distinct people in every country in which they live. This fact enables us to

point out their present state with a degree of accuracy, and affords a strong reason for doing it; since, doubtless, important designs are to be answered by the providence of God in preserving this people in so extraordinary a manner.

In our brief account of their more modern history, we have to remark, that at the beginning of the eighteenth century, Poland, and the adjacent provinces, had, for some time, been the head-quarters of the Jews. Poland the head quarters of the Jews in modern ages. In that kingdom they formed the only middle order between the nobles and the serfs. Almost every branch of traffic was in their hands. They were the corn merchants, shop-keepers, inn-keepers; in some towns they formed the greater part of the population, in some villages almost the whole. In the west of Europe, in the mean time, those great changes were slowly preparing, which, before the close of the century, were to disorganize the whole frame-work of society. The new opinions not merely altered the political condition of the Jews, as well as that of almost all orders of men; but they penetrated into the very sanctuary of Judaism, and threatened to shake the dominion of the rabbins, as they had that of the Christian priesthood, to its basis. The Jews were hated as the religious ancestors of the Christians, and it became the accustomed mode of warfare to wound Christianity through the sides of Judaism. The legislation of Frederick the Great, almost, as it were, throws us back into the middle ages. In 1750 appeared an edict for the general regulation of the Jews in the Prussian dominions. It limited the number of the Jews in the kingdom, divided them into those who held an ordinary, or an extraordinary protection from the crown. The ordinary protection descended to one child, the extraordinary was limited to the life of the bearer. The Jews in Prussia subjected to many taxes and disabilities. Foreign Jews were prohibited from settling in Prussia; exceptions were obtained only at an exorbitant price. Widows who married foreign Jews must leave the kingdom. The protected Jews were liable to enormous and especial burdens. They paid, besides the common taxes of the kingdom, for their patent of protection, for every election of an elder in their community, and for every marriage. But though thus heavily taxed, they were excluded from all civil functions, and from many of the most profitable branches of trade, from agriculture, from breweries and distilleries, from manufactures, from inn-keeping, from victualling, from physic and surgery.

Nor in more enlightened countries was the public mind prepared for any essential innovations in the relative condition of the Jews. In England, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, their cause was brought forward under the unpopular auspices of Toland the Freethinker. In 1753 a more important measure was attempted. A bill was introduced into parliament for the naturalization of all Jews who had resided

In England, three years in the kingdom, without being absent in the 18th more than three months at a time. It excluded century, laws them from all civil offices, but in other respects at one time bestowed all the privileges of British subjects. passed to fa- The bill passed both houses, and received the vour the Jews royal assent. But the old jealousies only slum- were soon abol- bered, they were not extinguished. So much abolished. clamour was raised by various classes of the people, that the ministry, and the houses of the parliament, found it necessary to repeal the obnoxious statutes.

Their state In Italy, till the French revolution, the Jews more eligible enjoyed their quiet freedom. In Rome they in Italy, till were confined to their Ghetto, and still con- the French re- strained to listen to periodical sermons. In the volution. maritime towns they continued to prosper.

In Germany, among the first measures which Joseph II., when he ascended the throne in 1780, saw fit to adopt, was a plan for the amelioration of the condition of the Jews. In Vienna, they had been barely tolerated since their expulsion by Leopold the First. After a period they were permitted to return. Under Maria Theresa the Jews were suffered to reside in Vienna, and enjoyed a certain sort of protection. In the other provinces of the empire they had lived unmolested, unless, perhaps, by some vexatious local regulations, or popular commotions in the different cities. Joseph II. published his edict of toleration, by which he opened to the Jews the schools, and the universities of the empire, and

In Germa- ny they were gave them the privilege of taking degrees as tolerated by doctors in medicine, philosophy, and the civil Joseph II. law. He conferred upon them other important privileges, which it is not necessary here to name. Still, though they were governed by the same laws with the Christians, they were liable to a toleration tax, and certain other contributions.

That terrible epoch, the Revolution, found some Jews in France: after their final expulsion, a few Portuguese fugitives had been permitted to take up their abode in Bourdeaux and Bayonne. There were a certain number in the old papal

dominions in Avignon. The conquest of the city of Metz, and afterwards of Alsace, included some considerable communities under the dominion of France. The Jews of this latter province presented a remarkable petition in 1780 to the king in council. They complained of great oppressions, particularly of a capitation tax, which, in addition to the royal patent of protection, the lords of the soil exacted, for the right of residence within their domains, from which not even the aged, nor infirm, nor children, nor even the Rabbins and officers of the synagogue, were exempt. The appeal to the equity of Louis XVI. was not in vain—the capitation tax was abolished in 1784; and in 1788, a commission was appointed to devise means for remodelling, on principles of justice, all laws relating to the Jews. This plan, however, was anticipated or set aside by the revolutionary tribunals, who were more rapid in their movements, than the cautious justice of the sovereign. In 1790, this class of people, who had watched their opportunity, sent in a petition, claiming equal rights as citizens. The measure was not passed without considerable discussion; but Mirabeau and Rabaut St. Etienne declared themselves their advocates, and the Jews were recognized as free citizens of the great republic.

In the year 1806, Napoleon summoned a grand Sanhedrin of the Jews to assemble at Paris. We are more inclined to look for motives of policy in the acts of this extraordinary man, than of vanity or philanthropy; nor does it seem unlikely, that in this singular transaction, he contemplated remotely, if not immediately, both commercial and military objects. He might hope to turn to his own advantage, by a cheap sacrifice to the national vanity, the wide extended and rapid correspondence of the Jews throughout the world, which notoriously outstripped his own couriers, and the secret ramifications of their trade, which not only commanded the supply of the precious metals, but much of the internal traffic of Europe, and probably made great inroads on the continental system. It must, however, be acknowledged, that the twelve questions submitted to the Sanhedrin seem to refer to the Jews strictly as subjects and citizens of the empire. They were, briefly, as follows:—I. Is polygamy allowed among the Jews? II. Is divorce recognised by the Jewish Law? III. Can Jews intermarry with Christians? IV. Will the French people be

In France their grievances were redressed in part by Louis XVI.

Under the revolution they were acknowledged as free citizens.

In 1806, Napoleon summoned a Sanhedrin.

Twelve questions submitted to the Sanhedrin, with the answers.

esteemed by the Jews as strangers or as brethren? V. In what relation, according to the Jewish Law, would the Jews stand towards the French? VI. Do Jews born in France consider it their native country? Are they bound to obey the laws and customs of the land? VII. Who elect the Rabbins? VIII. What are the legal powers of the Rabbins? IX. Is the election and authority of the Rabbins grounded on law or custom? X. Is there any kind of business in which Jews may not be engaged? XI. Is usury to their brethren forbidden by the Law? XII. Is it permitted or forbidden, to practice usury with strangers? The answers of the deputies were clear and precise: as they throw much light on the opinions of the more enlightened Jews, they are subjoined, with as much conciseness as possible, though we suspect, that they are not universally recognised as the authoritative sentence of the nation. I. Polygamy is forbidden, according to a decree of the Synod of Worms, in 1030. II. Divorce is allowed, but in this respect the Jews recognise the authority of the civil law of the land in which they live. III. Intermarriages with Christians are not forbidden, though difficulties arise from the different forms of marriage. IV. The Jews of France recognise in the fullest sense the French people as their brethren. V. The relation of the Jew to the Frenchman is the same as of Jew to Jew. The only distinction is in their religion. VI. The Jews acknowledged France as their country when oppressed,—how much more must they when admitted to civil rights? VII. The election of the Rabbins is neither defined nor uniform. It usually rests with the heads of each family in the community. VIII. The Rabbins have no judicial power; the Sanhedrin is the only legal tribunal. The Jews of France and Italy being subject to the equal laws of the land, whatever power they might otherwise exercise is annulled. IX. The election and powers of the Rabbins rest solely on usage. X. All business is permitted to the Jews. The Talmud enjoins that every Jew be taught some trade. XI. XII. The Mosaic institute forbids unlawful interest; but this was the law of an agricultural people. The Talmud allows interest to be taken from brethren and strangers; it forbids usury.

The laws of France relating to the Jews have remained unaltered: in Italy, excepting in the Tuscan dominions, they have become again subject to the ancient regulations. In Germany, some hostility is yet lurking in the popular feeling, not so much from religious animosity, as from commercial jealousy.

The condition of the Jews improving in Germany at

in the great trading towns, Hamburgh, Bremen, present, particularly in Lubeck, and particularly Frankfort, where they are still liable to an oppressive tax for the right of residence. Nor did the ancient nobility behold, without sentiments of animosity, their proud patrimonial estates, falling, during the great political changes, into the hands of the more prosperous Israelites. Nevertheless, their condition, both political and intellectual, has been rapidly improving. Before the fall of Napolcon, besides many of the smaller states, the grand duke of Baden, in 1809, the king of Prussia, in 1812, the duke of Mecklenburgh Schwerin, in 1812, the king of Bavaria, in 1813, issued ordinances admitting the Jews to civil rights, exempting them from particular imposts, and opening to them all trades and professions. The act for the federative constitution of Germany, passed at the congress of Vienna, in 1815, pledges the diet to turn its attention to the amelioration of the civil state of the Jews throughout the empire. The king of Prussia had, before this, given security that he would nobly redeem his pledge; he had long paid great attention to the encouragement of education among the Jews; and in his rapidly improving dominions, the Jews are said to be by no means the last in the career of advancement. Nor has his benevolence been wasted on an ungrateful race: they are reported to be attached with patriotic zeal to their native land; many Jews are stated to have fallen in the Prussian ranks at Waterloo.

The policy of the Russian government seems to have been to endeavour to overthrow the Rabbinical authority, and to relieve the crowded Polish provinces by transferring the Jews to less densely peopled parts of their dominions, where it was hoped they might be induced or compelled to become an agricultural race. A ukase of the Emperor Alexander, in 1803-4, prohibited the practice of small trades to the Jews of Poland, and proposed to transport numbers of them to agricultural settlements. He transferred likewise the management of the revenue of the communities from the Rabbins, who were accused of malversation, to the elders. A recent decree of the Emperor Nicholas appears to be aimed partly at the Rabbins, who are to be immediately excluded by the police from any town they may enter, and at the petty traffickers, who are entirely prohibited in the Russian dominions; though the higher order of merchants, such as bill-brokers and contractors, are admitted, on receiving an express permission from government: artisans and handicraftsmen are encouraged, though they are subject

to rigorous police regulations, and must be attached to some guild or fraternity. They cannot move without a passport.

It only remains to give the best estimate we can afford of the number of the Jews now dispersed throughout the four quarters of the world. Such statements must of

Numbers of the Jews in various parts of the world. necessity be extremely loose and imperfect. Even in Europe it would be difficult to approximate closely to the truth; how much more so in Africa and Asia, where our data depend on no statistic returns, and where the habits of the people are probably less stationary.

It is calculated that there exist between four and five millions* of this people, descended in a direct line from, and maintaining the same laws with, their forefathers, who, above 3,000 years ago, retreated from Egypt under the guidance of their inspired lawgiver.

In Africa, we know little more of their numbers than that they are found along the whole coast, from Morocco to Egypt; they travel with the caravans into the interior, nor is there probably a region undiscovered by Christian enterprise, which has not been visited by the Jewish trafficker. In Morocco they are said to be held in low estimation, and treated with great indignity by the Moors.

In Egypt, 150 families alone inhabit that great city, Alexandria, which has so often flowed with torrents of Jewish blood, and where, in the splendid days of the Macedonian city, their still recruited wealth excited the rapacious jealousy of the hostile populace or oppressive government.

In Cairo, the number of Jews is stated at 2,000, including, it should seem, sixty Karaite families. The Falishas, or Jewish tribe named by Bruce, inhabit the borders of Abyssinia; and it is probable that in that singular kingdom, many Jews either dwell or make their periodical visits.†

In Asia, the Jews still most likely might be found in considerable numbers on the verge of the continent; in China, where we are not aware that their communities have ceased to exist; and on the coast of Malabar, in Cochin, where two distinct races, called black and white Jews, were visited by Dr.

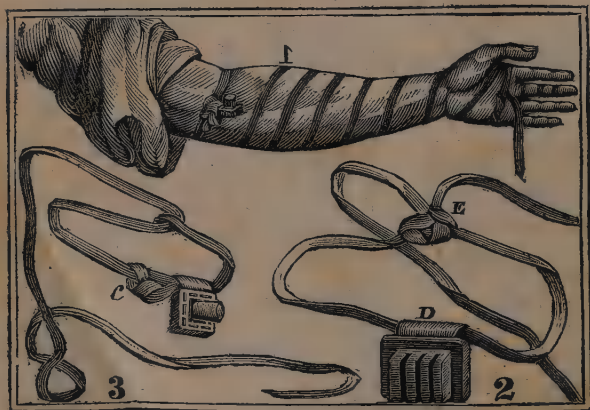
* A statement has just been published in this country, from the Weimar Geographical Ephemerides, which gives the whole number of Jews at little more than three millions. We should conceive the Asiatic, and perhaps the Russian, stated too low; but we subjoin their numbers.

† In the Weimar statement, the Jews of Africa stand as follows: Morocco and Fez, 300,000; Tunis, 130,000; Algiers, 30,000; Gabes or Habesh, 20,000; Tripoli, 12,000; Egypt, 12,000. Total, 504,000.



Taled. p. 55.

A Jew dressed for worship. p.55.



Phylacterites worn during prayer: p. 55.

Buchanan. The traditions of the latter averred that they had found their way to that region after the fall of Jerusalem, but the date they assigned for their migration singularly coincided with that of a persecution in Persia, about A. C. 508, from whence, most likely, they found their way to India. The origin of the black Jews is more obscure; it is not impossible that they may have been converts of the more civilized whites, or, more probably, are descendants of black slaves. The Malabar Jews were about 1,000; they possessed a copy of the Old Testament. Many are found in other parts of the East Indies.

In Bokhara reside 2,000 families of Jews; in Balkh, 150.

In Persia, they have deeply partaken of the desolation which has fallen on the fair provinces of that land; their numbers were variously stated to Mr. Woolff at 2,974 and 3,590 families. Their chief communities are at Shiraz and Ispahan, Kashaan and Yazd. They are subject to the heaviest exactions, and to the capricious despotism of the governors. "I have travelled far," said a Jew to Mr. Woolff; "the Jews are everywhere princes, in-comparison with those in the land of Persia. Heavy is our captivity, heavy is our burthen, heavy is our slavery; anxiously we wait for redemption."

In Mesopotamia and Assyria, the ancient seats of the Babylonian Jews are still occupied by 5,270 families, exclusive of those in Bagdad and Bassora. The latter are described as a fine race, both in form and intellect; in the provinces they are broken in mind and body by the heavy exactions of the pashas, and by long ages of sluggish ignorance. At Bagdad the ancient title of Prince of the Captivity, so long, according to the accounts of the Jews, entirely suppressed, was borne by an ancient Jew named Isaac. He paid dear for his honour: he was suddenly summoned to Constantinople and imprisoned.

At Damascus there are seven synagogues and four colleges.

In Arabia, whether not entirely expelled by Mahomet, or having returned to their ancient dwellings in later periods, the Beni-Khaibr still retain their Jewish descent and faith. In Yemen reside 2,658 families, 18,000 souls.

In Palestine, of late years, their numbers have greatly increased; it is said, but we are inclined to doubt the numbers, that 10,000 inhabit Safet and Jerusalem. They are partly Karaites: some very pathetic hymns of this interesting Israelitish race have been published in the Journals of Mr. Woolff, which must have a singularly affecting sound when heard

from children of Israel, bewailing, upon the very ruins of Jerusalem, the fallen city, and the suffering people.*

In the Turkish dominions, not including the Barbary States, the Israelites are calculated at 800,000. In Asia Minor they are numerous, in general unenlightened, rapacious, warred on, and at war with mankind.

In Constantinople, they are described as the most fierce and fanatical race which inhabit the city. Hated by and hating the Greeks with the unmitigated animosity of ages, they lend themselves to every atrocity for which the government may demand unrelenting executioners. They were employed in the barbarous murder and maltreatment of the body of the Patriarch; on the other hand, the old rumors of their crucifying Christian children are still revived: the body of a youth was found pierced with many wounds; the murder was, with one voice, charged upon the Jews. Their numbers are stated at 40,000.

At Adrianople reside 800 families, with thirteen synagogues.

In Salonichi, 30,000 possess thirty synagogues; and in this city, the ancient Thessalonica, the most learned of the Eastern Rabbins are reported to teach in their schools, with great diligence, the old Talmudic learning.

In the Crimea, the Karaites still possess their wild and picturesque mountain fortress, so beautifully described by Dr. Clarke, with its cemetery reposing under its ancient and peaceful grove, and the simple manners of its industrious and blameless people, who are proverbial elsewhere, as in this settlement, for their honesty. Their numbers amount to about 1,200.

In the Russian Asiatic dominions, about Caucasus and in Georgia, their numbers are considerable. In Georgia some of them are serfs attached to the soil; some, among the wild tribes about Caucasus, are bold and marauding horsemen like their Tartar compatriots.

But the ancient kingdom of Poland, with the adjacent provinces of Moravia, Moldavia, and Wallachia, is still the great seat of the modern Jewish population. Three millions have been stated to exist in these regions; but probably this is a great exaggeration. In Poland, they form the intermediate class between the haughty nobles and the miserable agricul-

* Asia:—Asiatic Turkey, 330,000; Arabias, 200,000; Hindostan, 100,000; China, 60,000; Turkistan, 40,000; Province of Iran, 35,000; Russia in Asia, 3,000. Total 738,000.—*Weimar Statement*.

tural villains of that kingdom.* The rapid increase of their population, beyond all possible maintenance by trade, embarrasses the government. They cannot ascend or descend; they may not become possessors, they are averse to becoming cultivators of the soil; they swarm in all the towns. In some districts, as in Volhynia, they are described by Bishop James as a fine race, with the lively, expressive eye of the Jew, and forms, though not robust, active and well-proportioned. Of late years, much attention, under the sanction of the government, has been paid to their education, and a great institution established for this purpose at Warsaw.

The number of Jews in the Austrian dominions is estimated, including Gallicia, at 650,000. In the Prussian dominions at 135,000. In the rest of Germany, 138,000. The emperor of Austria has afforded to Europe the novel sight of a Jew created a baron, and invested with a patent of nobility.

In Denmark and Sweden the Jews are in considerable numbers; those resident in Copenhagen were stated in 1819 at 1,491. They enjoy freedom of trade and the protection of the government.

The Netherlands contain 80,000.

In France, now deprived of the German and Italian provinces of the empire, the Israelites are reckoned at about 40 or 50,000.

In Spain, the iron edict of Ferdinand and Isabella still excludes the Israelite. At the extremity of the land, in Gibraltar, 3 or 4,000 are found under the equitable protection of Great Britain.

In Portugal they have been tolerated since the time of the late king, John VI., who remunerated their services in introducing large cargoes of corn during a famine, by the recognition of their right to inhabit Lisbon.†

In Italy their numbers are considerable. It is said that many have taken refuge in Tuscany from the sterner government of Sardinia; where, under the French dominion, among a Jewish population of 5,543, there were 182 landed proprie-

* A Jewish free corps served under Kosciusko during the insurrection in Poland.

† Europe:—In Russia and Poland, 608,800; Austria, 453,524; European Turkey, 321,000; States of the German Confederation, 138,000; Prussia, 134,000; Netherlands, 80,000; France, 60,000; Italy, 36,000; Great Britain, 12,000; Cracow, 7,300; Ionian Isles, 7,000; Denmark, 6,000; Switzerland, 1,970; Sweden, 450. Total number of Jews in Europe, 1,918,053; or a proportion of a 113th part of the population, calculated at 227 millions.—*Weimar Statement.*

tors, 402 children attended the public schools: 7,000 is given as their number in the Austrian territories in Italy.

In Great Britain, the number of Jews is variously stated from 12 to 25,000. They are entitled to every privilege of British subjects, except certain corporate offices and seats in parliament, from which they are excluded by the recent act, which requires an oath to be taken on the faith of a Christian. In the city of London they are prevented by municipal regulations from taking out their freedom; a restriction which subjects them to great occasional embarrassment and vexation, as no one can legally follow a retail trade without having previously gone through this ceremony.

In America the Jews are calculated at about 6,000; the few in the former dominions of Spain and Portugal, are descendants of those who, under the assumed name of Christians, fled from the inquisition; in Surinam a prosperous community is settled under the protection of the Dutch; they were originally established at Cayenne: there are some in Jamaica. In the United States, their principal settlements are at New-York, Philadelphia, and Charleston.*

Such, according to the best authorities to which we have access, is the number and distribution of the children of Israel; they are still found in every quarter of the world, under every climate, in every region, under every form of government, wearing the indelible national stamp on their features, united by the close moral affinity of habits and feelings, and, at least, the mass of the community, treasuring in their hearts the same reliance on their national privileges, the same trust in the promises of their God, the same conscientious attachment to the institutions of their fathers.

* America:—North America, 5,000; Netherlandish Colonies, 500; Demerara and Essequibo, 200. Total, 5,700.
New-Holland, 50.—*Weimar Statement.*

CHAPTER II.

RELIGIOUS CUSTOMS AND CEREMONIES OF THE JEWS.

THE religious customs of the Jews of modern times are not all of equal authority; neither are they observed by all alike; for this reason they are divided into three classes.

The *first* contains the injunctions of the *written law*, viz. those included in the Pentateuch, or five first books of Moses. The *second* class relates to the oral law, or that which was delivered by word of mouth. It comprehends those comments which the rabbins and doctors made in their days upon the Pentateuch, and an infinite variety of ordinances. These were collected into one large volume, called the *Talmud*. The *third* class includes such things as custom has sanctioned in different times and places, or which have been lately introduced among them. These are properly termed *customs*. Of these three classes, the first and second are received by all Jews, where-soever dispersed; but in regard to the third, they differ greatly from each other, because sojourning in various parts of the world, many of them have adopted the names, and fallen into the manners of the nations among whom they dwell. In this respect, the greatest difference lies between the Eastern German, and Italian Jews.

Three classes of Customs among the modern Jews.

SECT. I.—FUNDAMENTAL DOCTRINES.

We shall here transcribe the thirteen articles of the Jewish creed, which contain all that they believe, according to what rabbi Moses, or *Maimonides*, the Egyptian, has said of it, in his commentaries on the *Misna*, in the discourse *Sanedrin*, Chap. *Helec*; which the Jews have received without any opposition, and from which they are never permitted to swerve.

Articles of belief.

I. I believe with a strong and lively faith, that there is one God, the Creator of all things, and first principle of all beings, who is self-sufficient and independent, and without whom no created being can subsist.

II. I believe, &c. that God is one, and indivisible; but of an unity peculiar to himself alone:—that he has been, is, and shall forever be, the only God, blessed for evermore.

III. I believe, &c. that God is an incorporeal being; he

has no bodily quality of any kind whatever, which either is possible, or can any ways be imagined.

IV. I believe, &c. that God is eternal, and all beings, except himself, had once a beginning; for God is the beginning and end of all things.

V. I believe, &c. that none but God is the object of divine adoration; and no created being ought to be worshipped as a mediator or intercessor.

VI. I believe, &c. that whatever is written in the books of the prophets is true; for there have been, and still may be, prophets qualified to receive the inspirations of the Supreme Being.

VII. I believe, &c. in the truth of the prophecies of our master Moses, (peace be with him,) for Moses was a prophet superior to all others; and God Almighty honoured him with a peculiar gift of prophecy which was never granted to any of the rest.

VIII. I believe, &c. that the law left by Moses (peace be with him) was the pure dictate of God himself; and consequently, the explication of those commandments, which were handed down by tradition, came entirely from the mouth of God, who delivered it to our master Moses, as we have it at the present day.

IX. I believe, &c. that this law is unchangeable, and that God will never give another; nor can there be the least addition to, or diminution from it.

X. I believe, &c. that God perfectly knows the most secret thoughts, and governs all the actions of mankind.

XI. I believe, &c. that God will reward those who observe this law, and will severely punish such as are guilty of the least violation of it. *Eternal life* is the best and greatest reward, and *damnation of the soul* the most severe punishment.

XII. I believe, &c. that a Messiah shall come, more deserving than all the kings that have ever lived. Although he thinks proper to delay his coming, no one ought on that account to question the truth of it, or set an appointed time for it, much less produce scripture for the proof of it; since ISRAEL will never have any king to rule over it, but one that shall be of the line of David and Solomon.

XIII. I believe, &c. that God will raise the dead, and though I know not when, yet it will be when he sees most convenient.—Hallowed be his name for ever and ever. *Amen.*

There are other articles besides these fundamental ones, which, though not universally received, are not absolutely rejected.

The Jews go to prayers three times every day in their synagogues, and when they enter, they bow towards the **HECHAL**, or Ark, repeating some verses from the Psalms, Prayers and in an humble tone. The first four hours after thanks giving-sun-rise, are appointed for the morning service, ^{ings.}

which is called **SCIACRID**: the second service is in the afternoon, and called **MINCHA**: the third, at the close of the evening, which they call **HARUID**. But in several places, on such days as are not festivals, the afternoon and evening prayers, for convenience sake, are said together, at sun-set.

† The prayers which they use at present may be called a supplement to their ancient sacrifices; and for this reason they have given the title or name of small temples to their synagogues. And as two sacrifices were offered every day in the temple of Jerusalem, one in the morning, and the other in the evening, so they have morning and evening service in their synagogues, to correspond with those two sacrifices.

Besides these, there was another sacrifice offered up on holidays, for the solemnity of the festival; and for this reason they add a new prayer on feast-days, called **MUSAPH**, that is, *addition*.

They must not eat, drink, or do any kind of thing, or salute even a friend, till they have been at morning prayers:—they are obliged, however, to wash their hands before they enter the synagogue.

At their first entrance into the synagogue, having put on a devout and humble demeanour, they cover themselves with a white embroidered linen cloth, of an oblong figure, called the **TALED**, and then pronounce ^{Divine Service.} the benediction contained in Numbers, chapter

x. “Blessed be thou,” &c. Some Jews only cover their heads with the *Taled*, but others bring it close about their necks, that no object may divert their thoughts, and that their attention to the prayers may in no ways be interrupted.

In the next place they put on the armlets and fore-head-pieces, called **TEPHILIM**, or *Phylacteries*;—meaning that which is worn during the time of prayer.

The *Tephilim* are made as follows:—they take two slips of parchment, and write on them with great accuracy, and with ink made for that particular purpose, these four passages, in square letters, from Exodus, chapter xiii. 1–3, 5–6, 8–10, 11–13.

These two slips of parchment are rolled up together, and wrapped in a piece of black calf’s skin:—after which the latter is fixed upon a thick square piece of the same skin, leaving

a slip thereof fastened to it, of about a finger's breadth, and nearly a cubit and a half long. One of these *Tephilim* is placed on the bending of the left arm; and after they have made a small knot in the slip, they wind it round the arm in a spiral line, till the end thereof reaches the end of the middle finger: as for the Head *TEPHILA*, they write the four passages before mentioned, upon four distinct pieces of vellum, which, when stitched together, make a square: upon this they write the letter *SCIN*, and over it they put a square piece of hard calf's skin, as thick as the other, from which proceed two slips of the same length and breadth as the former. They put this square piece upon the middle of their forehead. The slips going round their heads, form a knot, behind, in the shape of the letter *DALETH*, and then hang down before, upon the breast. The forehead-pieces are usually put on in the morning only, with the *Taled*. Some, indeed, wear them at their noon prayers too; but there are very few who wear even the *Taled* at those prayers, excepting the Reader.

David Levi says, that "all Jews, every morning, during the reading of the *SHEMA*, and whilst saying the nineteen prayers, must have on the Phylacteries; because it is a sign of their acknowledging the Almighty to be the Creator of all things, and that he has power to do as he pleases. On the sabbath and other festivals, we do not put on the Phylacteries, because the due observation of these days is a sufficient sign of itself, as expressed in Exodus, chapter xxxi. verse 12."

God is said to enter the Synagogue as soon as the door is opened, and when ten are assembled together, and each of them thirteen years and a day old, at least, (for otherwise those prayers cannot be sung after a solemn manner,) then he is said to be in the midst of them, and the *CHAZAN*, or Reader, goes up to the table, or altar, or stands before the Ark, and begins to sing prayers aloud, in which the rest of the congregation join, but in a softer and less audible voice.

The form and mode of prayer is not uniform amongst the Jewish nations. The Germans sing in a louder tone than the rest. The Eastern and Spanish Jews sing much after the same manner as the Turks; and the Italians soft and slow. Their prayers are longer or shorter, according as the days are, or are not, festival. In this particular, too, the several nations differ greatly.

The Jews, in their prayers, rely on two things, viz. on the mercy and goodness of God, and on the innocence and piety of their forefathers. For which reason, they mention Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, and some others, both patriarchs and pro-

phets. "Do thou, O God," say they, "vouchsafe to hear us, and grant us such and such a favour, through the merits of all those just and holy men who have sprung up in every generation among the Israelites."

In regard to their posture during divine service, they are to stand without leaning as much as possibly they can: their heads are to be covered, and their bodies girt with a belt, to separate the heart from the lower parts, which are impure. Their hands and faces are to be carefully washed, before they presume to enter into the synagogue. They must not touch any thing whilst they are at their prayers which is foul and nasty, and their minds must be prepared, at least an hour, for their prayers, before they repeat them.

The person who prays must turn towards Jerusalem, join his feet straight, lay his hands on his heart, and fix his eyes on the ground. He must avoid gaping, spitting, blowing his nose, with the utmost precaution.

They may pray aloud, when at home, for the edification and improvement of their servants and family; but at the synagogue it is sufficient to say their prayers as softly as they please, if they do but move their lips; for it is requisite that the congregation should be well satisfied that they do pray.

When they depart from the synagogue, they must never turn their backs upon the Hechal, which contains the sacred books of the law. They must go out slowly, in conformity to those words in Job, the 14th chapter, and 16th verse, "Thou hast counted my steps." They must refrain likewise from casting their eyes upon any beautiful objects that may raise their inordinate affections. Whenever they pass the gate of the synagogue, they are obliged to put up an ejaculatory prayer.

Even when upon a journey, let a Jew be ever so far from the place where he set out, he must say a prayer with his face turned that way, and repeat some passages out of the scriptures which relate to travellers.

The rabbis have divided the five books of Moses into *forty eight* or *fifty-two* lessons, called PARASCIOD, or *divisions*; and one of them is read every week in their synagogues: The Pentateuch, so that in the compass of a year, whether it consists of twelve or thirteen months, they read the whole book through. On Mondays and Thursdays, after having said their penitential prayers, they take the SEFAR TORA, or *book of the law*, out of the Ark before mentioned, and whilst that verse of the 34th Psalm, "O praise the Lord with me," &c. and some others,

are repeating, they place it on the desk ; where being opened and unrolled, they desire three persons to read the beginning of the PARASCIA, which means *section or chapter*, in the same place with them. And the whole congregation repeat some words of it, which are preceded and followed with a blessing. After this, the Reader gives them his benediction, and they all promise either to bestow something on the poor, or to contribute towards the necessities of the synagogue. Then the SEFAR TORA is held up wide open, and the Reader, showing the writing thereof, says to the congregation, according to Deuteronomy, chapter iv. verse 44, "This is the law which Moses set before," &c. The Levantine Jews perform this ceremony first of all. After this declaration, the book is rolled up and covered, and then shut up in the ark. Besides this, no day must pass without reading some portion of the law at home.

This manner of reading the five books of Moses in the synagogue, and inviting a greater or smaller number of the congregation to read it with them, was ordered by Esdras, and is observed on all fasts and festivals.

As some men, out of a zeal for religion, are fond of being employed in certain ceremonies, such as taking the book out of the ark, and laying it up again, &c. &c. that indulgence is generally granted to such as are most generous and free of their money. Whatever is so collected, is distributed either amongst the poor, or employed towards furnishing the necessities of the synagogue.

An epitome of the tenets, ordinances, and traditions of all the rabbis up to the time of Rabbi Juda, about 120 years after the destruction of Jerusalem, called the

The Ghemara or Talmud. *Mishna*, was divided into six parts; the first treats of agriculture; the second of festivals; the third of marriages, and every thing relating to women; the fourth of law-suits, and of the disputes which arise from loss or interest, and of all manner of civil affairs; the fifth, of sacrifices; and the sixth, of things clean and unclean. This being very concise occasioned various disputes; a circumstance which prompted two rabbis of Babylon, to the compilation of all the interpretations, controversies, and additions which had been written upon the Mishna, together with other supplementary matter. Thus they placed the Mishna as the text, and the rest as an exposition; the whole forming the book called the Talmud Babeli, the Talmud of Babylon, or Ghemara, which signifies the book of perfection.

SEC. II.—CUSTOMS AND LAWS OF THE ANCIENT JEWS.

Soon after the JEWS, or *the children of Israel*, were delivered from Egyptian slavery, Moses, their leader, delivered them a body of laws, which he declared to them he received from God, whom he had conversed with, face to face, on MOUNT SINAI. These laws consisted of precepts which related both to the worship of God, and their duty to each other: but such was their attachment to their former customs and religion, that while Moses was absent, in procuring the divine law, the people made a golden calf, which they danced round, and worshipped as the true God. This was done in imitation of what they had seen in Egypt.

The most distinguishing of all the Jewish ceremonies, before their reception of the *Mosaic law*, was that of circumcision. This, from the time of Abraham, was always performed on the *eighth* day after the birth of the child, in order to distinguish them from the surrounding tribes, who made it a fixed rule to circumcise their children in the thirteenth year.

By the Mosaic law, the seventh day of the week was to be kept sacred; but this was no more than the revival of an ancient institution, as appears from Genesis, c. 2. Sabbath. Sacrifices were enjoined, and a distinction was made between clean and unclean animals. This distinction seems to have been rather political than religious; for had swine's flesh been eaten in the wilderness, or even in the land of Canaan, it might have been prejudicial to their health. Another reason has been assigned for this prohibition; namely, to make a *distinction between them and all other nations* in the universe.

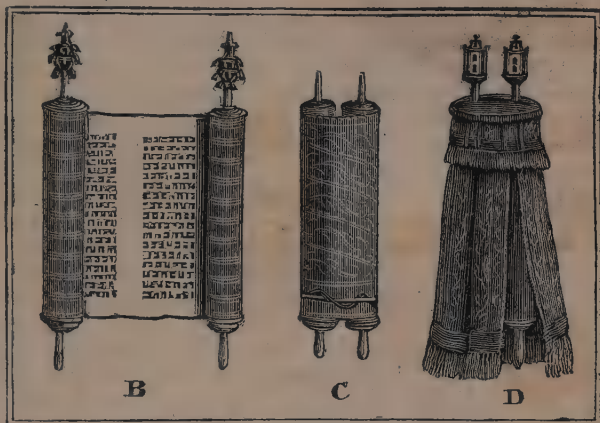
At the celebration of their grand solemnities and sacrifices, persons were to bring the victim to the priest, who laid his hand upon its head, and then read over to the congregation aloud, all the sins which the parties confessed. The victim was then slain, and when all the blood was extracted from the body, the fat was burned to ashes, and the other parts remained the property of the priests. During the time the children of Israel remained in the wilderness, they had no temple, because they had no fixed place of residence; but, to supply that deficiency, Moses and Aaron made an Ark or Tabernacle, which was carried by the Levites from place to place.

Of all the ceremonies imposed on the Jews, none serves more to point out the notion of an atonement for sin, than that of the "Scape-Goat." This ceremony was performed once in every year, and in the following manner:—

The goat was taken to the Tabernacle, and, in the hearing of all the people, the priest read a list of the sins which had been confessed. The people acknowledged their guilt. Then taking the scroll, the priest fixed it upon the goat, which was immediately conducted to the wilderness, and never more heard of. This being over, the messengers returned, and then the people received absolution. The law delivered by Moses to the Jews, contained not only directions for the manner in which sacrifices were to be offered, and indeed the whole service, first of the tabernacle, and then of the temple; but likewise a system of moral precepts. The distinctions of persons, according to the different ranks in life, were pointed out. Women were not permitted to wear the same habit as the men. Young persons were commanded to stand up in a reverent manner before the aged, and to treat them with every mark of respect. The same justice was to be done to strangers as to free-born subjects. No stranger was to be chosen king over them; for, as they were surrounded by heathen nations, a stranger, having the civil power in his hands, might have led them into idolatry. They were commanded not to abhor, nor treat with contempt, the Edomites; because they were the descendants of Esau, the elder brother of Jacob: nor were they to treat the Egyptians with cruelty.

Slavery was permitted by the law of Moses, but slaves or bond-men were not to be treated with cruelty; and the reason assigned was, that the children of Israel had themselves been slaves in the land of Egypt. Every widow and orphan were to be considered as objects of compassion; and those who treated them with cruelty were to be considered as objects of the Divine displeasure. Nay, it was further threatened in this law, that those who oppressed the widow and the fatherless, should die an ignominious death; that their widows should be exposed to want, and their children subjected to hardships.

The duty of charity was strongly inculcated by the Mosaic economy; for whatever was left of the fruits of the earth in the field, they were not to go back to gather; it was for the poor and needy: the slaves were to enjoy it, and so were the widows and fatherless. The tribe of Levi, to whom the priesthood was confined by law, were not to have any local inheritance, but they were to dwell in the presence of their bre-



Sefar Tora, or Book of the Law. p. 58.



Jewish Ceremony of walking 7 times round the dead. p. 79.

thren, and one-tenth part of the fruits of the earth was to be set aside for their subsistence. These Levites, however, were commanded to relieve the widow and the fatherless.

In every city, town, or village, some of the most respectable of the inhabitants, or elders of the people, were to be appointed judges; and in the administration of justice, they were strictly commanded to act impartially. No respect was to be paid to the characters or rank of persons; and a dreadful curse was pronounced against such Judges.

as should take bribes. These judges sat in the gates of the cities; which practice still prevails in many of the eastern nations. The origin of this custom is of great antiquity; but the end and design of it has never been properly accounted for, which is the more surprising, because the custom itself is very emblematical and expressive.

There was, however, an appeal from these inferior courts, whether relating to matters of a civil or a criminal nature. And this appeal was very solemn: the party who thought himself injured, entered his appeal before the supreme judge or the king, who called to his assistance the whole body of priests and Levites; and the majority of votes determined the affair. If either of the contending parties refused to abide by the final decision, he was condemned to suffer death; for not to acknowledge such a solemn judgment, was to deny the authority of God himself, who had delegated his authority to the judges, priests, and Levites.

The person who spoke disrespectfully of a judge, was considered as a blasphemer; and if he was found guilty by the evidence of two or three witnesses, then he was to be put to death; for to revile a judge was to revile God, he being considered as his representative on earth.

The Jewish slavery was two-fold, and arose from a variety of circumstances. When men were reduced to poverty, it was in the power of their creditors to sell them: but they were not to be treated as strangers; they were to be treated in the same manner as we do hired servants; and when the year of jubilee took place, they, and their wives, with their children, were to be set at liberty, and they were to return to the possessions of their ancestors. These persons who were purchased, or in other words, taken into a state of servitude, were not to be sold by their masters, nor were they to be treated with any sort of severity. When a servant was discharged, his master was to give him as much corn, wine, oil, and other necessaries, as he and his wife and children could carry home to their houses. Slavery.

In the patriarchal age, the power of masters over their servants was unlimited, for they had a right to put them to death whenever they pleased; but after the children of Israel had returned from Egypt, this power was confined within proper bounds. Such as engaged for a limited time were to have leave to go out at the expiration of it; and if a man was married when he entered into servitude, his wife and children were to be set at liberty; but if his master gave him a wife, both she and the children were to remain the property of the master. This circumstance, however, seldom took place, for the law had provided a remedy.

It frequently happened, that when the term of servitude expired, the servant having no prospect of procuring a subsistence, and, at the same time, unwilling to part with his wife and children, told his master that he would serve him during the remainder of his life. In such cases, the master took him before the elders, or judges, and in their presence, an awl was bored through his ear, and fixed to a post in the gate of the city; signifying that he and his wife and children were to serve the master till death.

It was the same with women servants, who were bound by the same obligations. With respect to strangers, they were, at all times, permitted to redeem themselves, and this was to be done in an equitable manner before the judges. All the arrears due to them were to be paid, and if the time of their servitude was not expired, then they were to make a proper deduction, so that the master should not receive the least injury.

When a master struck his servant, and the wound proved mortal, so that the servant died within a day or two, then the crime was to be considered as capital, and the master was to suffer death for it; but if he lived beyond that time, then the master was to be discharged, because the slave was his property. When a master struck out the eye or the tooth of his servant, then he was obliged to let him go free; because, in such an instance, the master exceeded the bounds prescribed by the law.

It was in the power of parents to sell their daughters; a practice which has been followed in the eastern nations from the most early ages. When a master seduced

Power of a father. a female slave, he was not permitted to sell her, because he had not acted towards her consistently with the nature of moral obligation. If the master betrothed the young woman to his son, she was to be treated as a free-born subject; but if the young man took another

wife, then he was to deliver up every thing belonging to the slave, and she was to be free to act in what manner she pleased. It is singular, that when a slave ran away from his master, he was not to be reclaimed by him, but was to remain with the person where he chose to settle.

The power that fathers had over their children was great. If a son refused to obey his father or mother, or treated them with indignity, they were to chastise him; and if no reformation took place in his conduct, then he was to be taken before the elders, or judges of the city, who, upon hearing such evidence as served to prove his guilt, he was delivered over to the common executioners, who immediately stoned him to death. None of the children of Israel were permitted to sell their daughters as common prostitutes, because purity was enjoined by the Mosaic law. It was the custom of the surrounding nations to boil kids in the milk of their dam; but by the Mosaic law this was forbidden as an unnatural practice; so that it was utterly prohibited for any person to seethe a kid in its mother's milk.

Many of the Heathen nations lived in an incestuous manner; but this practice was not tolerated under the law of Moses. The degrees of consanguinity were so strictly attended to, that no person was to break Laws respecting marriage. through them; and a table of those degrees has always been affixed to the English translation of the Bible. A man was not to marry two sisters, lest it should create family dissensions.

If a man died without having children, and if he had a brother alive unmarried, then the bachelor was to espouse the widow; that by descendants the name of the family might be kept up; but the first-born child was to succeed to the name and estate of the first husband.

As nothing was more odious among the Jews, than for men or women to live unmarried, so if the brother-in-law refused to marry the sister-in-law, to preserve the name of his family, the widow was to go before the judges in the gate of the city, and there exhibit her complaint. This being done, the brother-in-law was called before the judges, and examined concerning the nature of his objections; and when it was found that he absolutely refused to marry the woman, then she was called in, and the refusal intimated to her; the judges then were to tell her to act according as the law of Moses directed; and she, stooping down, unloosened the shoe from off his right foot, and, spitting in his face, declared her abhorrence of the man who refused to perpetuate the name of his family, and the

name of his brother; and from that time forward he was called, "*The man whose shoe was loosed in Israel.*"

A woman was not to marry into any tribe but that to which her father belonged: this seems to have been done to keep up the grand distinctions among the twelve tribes, especially that of Judah; from whom the MESSIAH was to be descended.

Moses permitted a man to put away his wife, and both parties were allowed to marry again. But if a husband divorced his wife, and she married a second husband, who afterwards died, then the first husband was not to take the woman again. This was done to discourage divorces.

Every man was exempted from going to war, and from all public business, during the first year of his marriage; and the reason was, that there might not be too many young widows or fatherless children among them. The law of Moses allowed a man to make a vow, and to give for the service of the tabernacle any part of his goods or money, but so as not to injure his family.

It is evident, from several passages in the Old Testament, that women were permitted to make vows, on condition of obtaining the consent of their fathers and husbands. If the fathers or husbands were present when the vow was made, and did not object to it, then the woman was bound to the performance. On the other hand, if either the father or husband objected to the vow, then it could not stand good, and the priests were commanded to see that it was not performed. But all widows, and such women as had been divorced, and lived single, were obliged to perform their vows, otherwise they were to be treated as persons guilty of sacrilege.

In military affairs, the law of Moses was well calculated to promote the interests of the commonwealth, and altogether suitable to the genius, times, and circumstances of the people. Every family was obliged to return to the chiefs of the tribes a list of all the males upwards of twenty years of age, fit to carry arms. When the return was made, the males of each tribe were called together, and the following questions were asked them, one by one: "Has any man built a house, and has not had time to dedicate it? Has any man planted a vineyard, and not yet eaten of the fruit of it? Has any man betrothed a wife, and not yet married her? Is any man fearful or faint-hearted to go against the enemy? Then let all those return home, and attend to their domestic duties."

According to the Jewish law, when they attacked a city they were to offer terms of peace to the inhabitants, upon con-

dition of surrendering themselves up prisoners of war, and submitting to the will of the conqueror; which was, that they should pay a certain tribute. But if the citizens refused to accept of the proffered terms, then the place was to be attacked, and if taken, all the males were to be put to the sword. The women and children were to be sold as slaves; the cattle, and all the goods were to be taken and distributed equally among the soldiers, after which the city was to be reduced to ashes.

They were permitted to eat the fruits of the trees which they found in the land of an enemy; and the trees were to be cut down in order to raise bulwarks against the next city which they should have occasion to besiege.

All the lands taken by conquest were to be divided by lot among the soldiers, but each was to have his share, according to the rank he bore in the army. The Levites also had their share, although, being obliged to attend the service of the tabernacle, they were exempted from every duty of a civil or military nature. This exemption was appointed to exist throughout all generations: although we meet with many deviations from it in the latter times of their history, particularly after they returned from the Babylonish captivity.

If a man died without leaving a son, then the inheritance was to pass to his daughter; and if there was no daughter, then it was to go to the brothers; and if there were no brethren, then it was to ascend upwards to the brothers of the grandfather, and to all the collateral branches, according to their consanguinity.

As polygamy was permitted among the Jews, great care was taken that no abuses should happen, in consequence of partiality in favour of the children of the second or third wife, in preference to those of the first. It was ordered, that although the first wife should be despised, or even hated by her husband, yet her first-born son should succeed to the inheritance; and the judges were under the most solemn obligations to see this part of the law properly executed. Provision, however, was made for the rest of the children, and amongst them the personal estate was divided without any partial respect; but if there was no personal estate, then two thirds of the real estate were given to the first-born, and the third divided equally among the rest.

The Jews were permitted to lend money upon *usury*, to strangers, but not to any of their own brethren, nor were they to sleep one night with their brother's pledge.

If an estate was mortgaged, the person who held it was obliged to restore it at the end of seven years, upon condition

of receiving the money he had advanced, but he was not under the same obligation to strangers. And if a man borrowed a beast of his neighbour, and an accident happened to it, so that it received an injury, then he was to make good the loss, unless the owner happened to be present.

If a man delivered any thing to another to keep, and it was stolen, the thief, if found, was to pay double; but if the thief was not found, then the person to whom it was intrusted, was to be brought before the judges, to declare upon oath, whether he had injured his neighbour by making away with his goods, or having been privy to any transaction of that nature. The oath of the suspected person was to be supported by such evidence as he could produce; and that was to be opposed by what the prosecutor could advance.

The matter having been heard with calmness, the judges were to consider on it in a deliberate manner; and if it appeared that the accused person was innocent, then he was acquitted; but, if through his own neglect the goods were stolen, then he was to return double to the owner. If there was no evidence produced by the person accused, nor any to support the accusation, then the judges were to decide, according to their own wisdom and discretion.

Among the Jews, there were several things exempted from being pledged; amongst which were millstones; for such things were necessary towards preserving the lives of men, because wheat would have been of little use unless ground into flour. When a pledge was deposited, the person who advanced the money was not to go into the debtor's house to demand it, but he was to stand without the door until it was brought to him. This was ordered to prevent family disputes, and to keep peace among a body of people who were commanded to live together as brethren. The clothes of widows were not to be taken in pledge, and the same degree of humanity was to extend to strangers, to the fatherless, and to the slaves. Great regard was paid to the standard weights and measures; so that, in their common dealings, justice should be equally distributed.

Every sale, or bargain, relating to the conveyance of estates, was of a conditional nature; and if any of the descendants or relations of those who assigned it away, produced the money advanced for it, at the end of forty-nine years, then it was to be restored; for the possession of it during that time, was considered as an ample recompense to the purchaser.

On such occasions; trumpets were to be sounded in all the towns and villages, that the people might have proper notice

that the jubilee was approaching. Then, during the fiftieth year, all servants or slaves were to be set at liberty; and an opportunity was offered for persons to redeem such estates as had been sold. In the redemption of estates, an account was taken before the judges, concerning the nature of the improved rent, during the time they had been in the possession of the purchaser, and the overplus was delivered up, either to the person who sold them, or to his relations who made the claim.

All houses in walled cities, namely, such as were fortified, could be redeemed within the compass of one year, but they could never be redeemed afterwards, not even in the year of jubilee; because the person in possession was under obligation to lay down his life in support of its rights and privileges. It was different with respect to the villages which were not walled round, because they were considered as part of the country at large, so that they were permitted to be redeemed in the year of jubilee. However, the houses of the Levites were not to be sold without redemption, whether they were in cities or villages.

When servants were hired by the day, they were to receive their wages before sun-set; and the reason assigned for it was, that because the poor man wanted his hire, hunger, and the regard he had for his wife and children, would make him unwilling to return home.

By the Mosaic law, the ox, who contributed towards cultivating the fruits of the earth, and who assisted in treading out the corn, was not muzzled, but suffered to eat as much as he could, while he was employed.

Covetousness was forbidden by the Mosaic law. Cattle being stolen and disposed of, so as to be irrecoverable, the thief, on conviction, was to make a five-fold restitution; but if the cattle were found alive with him, then he was to restore them and pay double. Every person was empowered to kill a housebreaker, if he was found in the fact during the night; but if in the day, then he was either to make restitution, or to be sold for a slave.

In walking through a vineyard, every stranger was permitted to pull what fruit he chose to eat, but he was not to carry any away. It was the same with respect to fields of corn, where every man was permitted to pull as much as he could eat, but he was not to put in a sickle, or cut down as much as one of the stalks.

It was ordained in their law, that nuisances, by which men's lives or properties could be injured, should be removed; or if an accident happened in consequence of neglect, a proper recompense was to be made to the loser. Thus, if a man left a

pit uncovered, and his neighbour's beast fell into it, and was killed, or in any way disabled, then the person guilty of the neglect was to make up the loss. In the same manner, if any man killed the beast of his neighbour, he was either to restore another equal in value, or pay the price.

All those who found cattle wandering astray, were to take them to their own folds, and keep them till they were claimed by the owners. It was the same with respect to every thing lost, for whoever found it, and did not embrace the first opportunity of restoring it, was considered as a thief, and punished as such.

If fire happened through negligence, the person who neglected to take proper care, was to make restitution to the injured person; and the same was to be done where a man suffered his beast to eat the corn in the field of his neighbour. If a man or woman happened to be killed by an ox, then the ox was to be stoned to death, and his flesh was not to be eaten; but if sufficient evidence appeared to the judges, that the ox was a vicious animal, accustomed to push at every person who came in his way, and the owner did not take proper measures to restrain him, then the ox was to be stoned, and the owner was to be put to death. It was, however, permitted for the owner of the ox to redeem his own life, by paying a certain sum of money to the widow or children of the deceased.

When an ox killed a slave, his owner was to pay to the master of the slave thirty shekels of silver; and if it happened that one ox hurt or killed another, the live ox was to be sold along with the dead one, and the money equally divided between the proprietors.

Murder. Wilful murder was to be punished with death: for thus it was written in the Mosaic law:—

“And if he smite him with an instrument of iron (so that he die) he is a murderer: the murderer shall surely be put to death. And if he smite him with throwing a stone, (where-with he may die,) and he die, he is a murderer.” In the same manner, if he smote him with an instrument of wood, so that he died, he was a murderer; but still no crime could be called murder, unless there was malice in the offending party. In all such cases, the nearest of kin had a right to put the murderer to death with his own hands.

The difference between murder and manslaughter was pointed out, and a straight line of distinction drawn. Thus, if there had been no malice between the contending parties, and it happened that one of them killed the other suddenly, then the aggressor was to *flee to the city of refuge*, where he

was kept in a state of safety, until the judges had inquired into the affair. This was done in a very solemn manner, and what is remarkable, the evidence was delivered in the hearing of all those who lived in the district where the affair happened.

When a solemn inquiry was made, and it was found that the aggressor entertained malice against the deceased, then he was delivered up to the avenger of blood to be put to death. But if it was found that no malice had existed between the parties, then the judges were to see the offender safely conducted to the city of refuge, where he was to remain as an inhabitant, till the death of the high-priest. During that time, if he ventured to go out of the city of refuge, the avenger of blood had a right to put him to death; but when the high-priest died, he was restored to the peaceable enjoyment of his temporal possessions.

When it happened that a pregnant woman was injured, so as to occasion her miscarrying, then the husband was to demand a fine from the offending party, and the judges were to determine how much was equitable. It was common in the eastern countries to steal children, and sell them to be brought up as slaves; but the law of Moses absolutely prohibited this practice, and the offender was to be put to death.

In some cases, offenders were permitted to take shelter on the horns of the altar, the place to which the victim was bound; but if he was a murderer, and found guilty by the judges, then the executioners had a right to drag him from the altar and put him to death.

As the Jewish state was that of a *theocracy*, so every violation of the law, delivered by Moses, was punished as high treason to God. The people were to be considered as guilty of high treason, when they worshipped any of the idols in the heathen nations. It was high treason likewise, to set up an image of God.

In particular, they were strictly commanded not to worship the sun, moon, or stars.

What the English law calls *misprision of treason*, was punished capitally among the Jews.—Thus, if one man saw another go to worship in a heathen temple, and did not reveal it to the judges, then he was to be put to death; for, to *conceal* treason, was considered as *approving* of it.

In all cases, the traitor was punished by *stoning*, and the witnesses were obliged to perform the execution. Nay, so strict was the law with respect to treason, that if one person advised another to idolatry, then the person advised had a right to kill him. If all the inhabitants

of a city became idolaters, then that city was to be razed to the ground, the people were all to be put to death, and the place was to remain a heap of ruins for ever.

It frequently happened, that impostors rose up, under the character of prophets; but if such enticed the people to commit idolatry, then they were to be stoned to death; nor were their highest pretensions to inspiration to screen them from punishment.

All those who pretended to be wizards, who had familiar spirits, and who could reveal the knowledge of future events, were considered as traitors, and were put to death. Every one, whether male or female, who spoke irreverently of the name of God, was also to be put to death.

If a man and woman were taken in the act of adultery, both were to be stoned to death; and the same punishment was inflicted on the man who seduced a betrothed virgin, previous to her marriage; the virgin herself was to die along with the seducer; but this was only done when the crime was committed in a city, for when it happened in the fields, then the man alone was to suffer, because it was presumed he had ravished her.

When the punishment was such as permitted a power in the judge to order a criminal to be scourged, then he was to command him to lie down in open court, and forty stripes were to be given him, but he was not to exceed that number; but according to the practice, they seldom exceeded the number of thirty-nine. If more than forty stripes had been inflicted on the offending party, he would have been considered as infamous ever after, and by only inflicting thirty-nine, it was done from motives of humanity, lest the party should be in danger of losing his life.

If a man lay with a woman who was a slave and betrothed, the woman was to be scourged, and the man was to offer a ram as a trespass-offering; neither of them were to be put to death, because the woman was not free. Bastards were not permitted to enjoy the same privileges as those who were born in wedlock; and, that incontinency might be discouraged as much as possible, this prohibition was to extend even to the tenth generation.

This order or statute, however, did not prohibit bastards from worshipping either in the tabernacle or temple; for they were treated in the same manner as the heathens who renounced idolatry; namely, as proselytes who worshipped God without the veil of the temple. In many civil respects, likewise, they were not considered as members of the Jewish community.

That no injury should be done to young women, it was ordered, that if a man lay with a virgin who was not betrothed, then he was to pay to her father fifty shekels of silver as part of the composition for the injury, and at the same time he was obliged to marry her, nor could he, on any account whatever, obtain a divorce from her; because in the act of seduction he had first set her a bad example.

With respect to a witness giving evidence in a court of justice, the law of Moses provided against perjury. It was absolutely necessary, that there should be either two or three witnesses to prove the truth of every

Perjury.

criminal accusation, because two individuals can swear to a single fact. In case a man, who appeared as a witness against an accused person, should have been suspected of delivering false evidence, then both parties were to appear in the tabernacle before the judges and the priests, and they were to consider of the matter in the most deliberate manner. If it appeared to the judges, that the witness had perjured himself, then they were to order that the same punishment should be inflicted upon him, as would have been inflicted upon the accused person, had he been legally convicted.

The practice of making witnesses the executioners of the criminal, had something in it remarkably solemn; for a man may swear falsely in a court of justice, from interested or sinister motives, but if he has the least spark of conscience remaining, he must shudder at the thoughts of becoming the executioner of the man, who, by his evidence, was illegally condemned.

Retaliation made a great part of the Jewish law: thus, he who put out the eye of another, was to have his own put out; he who struck out the tooth of another, was to have his own tooth struck out; he who disabled another, was himself to be disabled; and, whoever burnt down the house of his neighbour, was to have his own house reduced to ashes.

To what has already been advanced, we may add, that all punishments among the Jews, were considered as adequate to the crimes with which the offending prisoners were charged.

If a man was found guilty of a capital offence, and condemned to be hanged, his body was not to remain after sun-set on the tree; but (says the Mosaic law) "*Thou shalt bury him that day, that thy land be not defiled: for he that is hanged is accursed of God.*"

SEC. III.—RELIGIOUS RITES.

EVERY Jew is under an indispensable obligation to marry, the time appointed for it by their rabbis being at eighteen years of age; and he who lives single till he is twenty, is reckoned to live in the actual commission of a known sin. This is grounded on the duty of procreation, in obedience to that command which God gave to Adam and Eve, as related in the 1st chapter of Genesis, "Be fruitful, and multiply and replenish the earth." On the other hand, as a single man is often subject to commit fornication, they think it a duty incumbent on him to marry, and remove the temptation.

There are several passages in the Old Testament which might be adduced to justify a *plurality of wives*; and the Eastern Jews frequently practise it; but the Germans do not allow it at all; nor do the Italians approve, though they sometimes comply with it, when after many years of cohabitation, they have had no issue by a first wife.—The laws of the greater part of Europe, are, however, quite averse to polygamy.

They are allowed to marry their nieces, that is, their brother's or sister's daughters, and likewise their first cousins; but a nephew must not intermarry with his aunt, that the law of nature may not be reversed: for when the uncle marries his niece, the same person remains as the head, who was so before; but when the nephew marries his aunt, he becomes, as it were, her head, and she must pay homage to him; by which means the law is reversed. The other degrees of consanguinity which are forbidden, may be seen in the 18th chapter of Leviticus.

Some are very cautious how they marry a woman who has buried two or more husbands; branding her with the ignominious title of a husband-killer: but this is not prohibited, and is less to be understood of a man, who may have had two or more wives.

A widow, or a woman divorced from her husband, cannot marry again, till ninety days after the death of the one, or separation of the other, that it may thereby be certainly known whether the first husband is father of the child, which may afterwards be born.

If a man dies, and leaves behind him an infant that sucks, the widow cannot marry again till the child be two years old; the rabbis having limited that time, for the better maintenance and education of the orphan.

The Jews often marry their children very young, though the marriage is not consummated till they are of a proper age; therefore, when a child who is under ten years of age, (whether her father be alive or dead,) becomes a widow, and afterwards marries with the consent of her mother, or brothers, a man whom she does not approve of, she may have a divorce at any time, till she attains the age of twelve years and one day, at which period she is deemed a woman. If she declares, that she will not have such a man, it is sufficient. And when she has taken two witnesses to set down her refusal in writing, she may obtain a divorce, and marry again with whom she pleases.

When the Jews have settled the terms of accommodation, the marriage articles are signed by the husband, and the relations of the wife; after which the former pays Betrothings a formal visit to the latter, and, before witnesses, and weddings takes her by the hand, saying, "*Be thou my spouse.*" In some countries the bridegroom presents the bride with a ring at the same time, and then marries her. But this is not the usual practice in England, Italy, or Germany. They are often solemnly engaged for six or twelve months, and sometimes two years, according to the convenience of the parties, or the agreement made between them; during which time the young lover pays frequent visits to his mistress, and spends his time in her company with the utmost familiarity, but with a strict regard to decency and good manners.

In a part of the marriage articles, the bridegroom covenants to give his wife, by way of jointure, the sum of fifty crowns; all his effects, even to his *cloak*, being engaged for the due performance of this agreement. The sum is moderate, to render the marriage of poor maidens easy.—But the wife must deliver into her husband's hands, all the effects which she may afterwards inherit.

When the marriage-day is appointed, (which is usually at the time the moon changes, and in case the bride be a maid, on a Wednesday or Friday, but if a widow, on a Thursday,) the bride, if she be free from her terms, goes the first night into a bath, in the presence of other women, and there washes herself. But if she be not free from her terms, all carnal conversation with her is prohibited, till she can wash. However, the nuptial solemnities are seldom delayed upon that account.

The eight days which precede the marriage, are usually grand-days; the betrothed couple and their friends giving loose to pleasure, laugh, sing, dance, and cast away care.

Some insist that the young couple should fast on the wedding-day, till the blessing be over.

On the wedding-day, the bride and bridegroom dress in all the grandeur and magnificence their circumstances will admit of, and the bride is conducted in pomp to the house intended for the celebration of the nuptials, by several married women and maidens, who are her friends and acquaintance. She is first bare-headed, and her hair all loose, and in disorder. After this, she is seated between two venerable matrons, and her friends flock round about her, comb her head, curl her hair, dress her, and put on her veil: for virgin modesty forbids her to look her intended husband in the face.—In this she imitates the chaste Rebecca, who covered her face when Isaac cast his eyes upon her. At Venice, the bride wears a sort of wig, or bundle of curls, called favourites, which the Jews call **BENETES**; in imitation of those which God himself, according to the rabbis, adorned Eve's head with, when he married her to Adam.

For the solemnization of the marriage, the lovers who are betrothed, meet at an hour appointed for that purpose, in a kind of state-room. The bridegroom is conducted thither by the bridemen, friends, &c. and the bride by her train:—the whole company crying out, "*Blessed be the man that cometh.*" They now sit on a nuptial throne, under a canopy, whilst a select band of music plays before them; or whilst children, as is the custom in some places, move in solemn order round them, having torches in their hands, and singing some appropriate epithalamium. All those who are of their synagogue being assembled, (that is, ten men at least; else the marriage is null and void,) a **TALED** is put upon the heads of the bridegroom and bride; it has the tufts hanging down at the corners, in imitation of **BOAZ**, who threw the skirts of his robe over **RUTH**. In many cases, a velvet canopy, supported by four poles, is held over the bride and bridegroom. After this, the rabbis of the place, or the reader of the synagogue, or some near relation, takes a glass, or any other vessel filled with wine, and, having blessed God "*for the creation of man and woman, and the institution of matrimony,*" says as follows: "Blessed art thou, O Lord, our God! king of the universe, the creator of the fruit of the vine. Blessed art thou, O Lord, our God! king of the universe, who hath sanctified us with his commandments, and hath forbid us fornication, and hath prohibited unto us the betrothed, but hath allowed unto us those that are married unto us, by the means of the canopy, and the wedding-ring: blessed art thou, O Lord!

the sanctifier of his people Israel, by the means of the canopy, and wedlock."

Then the bridegroom and bride drink of the wine. The bride now walks *three* times round the bridegroom, and he does the same *twice* round her. This ceremony is said to be grounded on Jeremiah, chapter xxxi. verse 22, "A woman shall compass a man," &c. Then the bridegroom, putting a ring upon the finger of his bride, who stands on his right hand, before two or more credible witnesses, who are commonly rabbis, says, "Thou art my wife, according to the ceremonies of Moses and Israel." In Germany, the guests throw some grains of corn at them, and say at the same time, "Increase and multiply."—After this, the marriage articles are read, wherein the bridegroom acknowledges the receipt of the consideration money, the obligation he is under to make his wife a jointure, and to maintain, honour, and cherish her, and live peaceably with her all the days of his life. For the due performance of all the articles above-mentioned, he gives a duplicate to his wife's relations. After this, more wine is brought in a new vessel, and having sung six more benedictions, the bride and bridegroom drink a second time, and the residue of the wine is thrown upon the ground, as a declaration of their joy. Every thing being mystical with the Jews, it is to be observed, that if the bride be a maid, the glass is narrow; but if she be a widow, a wide mouthed goblet is used. The glass or vessel being empty, the bridegroom throws it on the ground, and breaks it to pieces. This ceremony is performed, they say, that their mirth may give them an idea of death, who dashes them to pieces like brittle glass, and teaches them not to be proud or self-conceited. Others say, that the breaking of the glass indicates the impossibility of the marriage ties being dissolved;—the signification being, that when the atoms of the glass shall be re-united, the bride and bridegroom may separate; but, not till then. In the mean time, all persons present cry out, MAZAL TOU. "*May it prove propitious,*" and then withdraw.

In the evening they make a grand entertainment for their friends and relations; and in some places, all the guests who were invited present the bride with a piece of plate; some before, and some after supper is over. Then follow the seven benedictions before mentioned, and after this they all rise from table.

Fowls of some kind are always a part of the wedding-supper. The first dish presented to the bride is a hen with an egg, and after she has been served, the guests help themselves

to the remainder. The hen is emblematical, and denotes the future fruitfulness of the bride.

On the sabbath-day morning, after the consummation of their marriage, the bridegroom and the bride go to the synagogue together. The bride is attended by all the women that were present at the wedding. At the lessons of the Pentateuch, the bridegroom is desired to read: he then promises to give liberally to the poor, and all who come with him follow his example. When prayers are over the men wait on the bridegroom home, and the women on the bride; after which they part, with abundance of courtesy and complaisance. The bridegroom, in some places, lives, during the first week, with his wife's relations, where he amuses himself, and entertains his friends and acquaintance.

These are the general practices in all Jewish weddings, though there are some little variations observed, according to the various countries in which they live.

If the wife dies, and has no issue, they are obliged to act according to the customs of the country they live in, which vary almost in every nation.

Among the Jews, the father lies under an indispensable obligation to have his son circumcised on the eighth day, in Circumcision. obedience to the command in the 17th chapter of Genesis, 10th–14th verses. This cannot be done till the expiration of the eight days; but in case the child be sick or infirm, it may be deferred till he is perfectly recovered. Anciently, by the fulfilment of this rite, it was consecrated to the service of God. This, no doubt, was then the principal end of circumcision, but there do not appear to have been wanting other subsidiary objects. Were it necessary, we might demonstrate both by quotations from the ancients, and reasons drawn from the nature of the member on which circumcision is performed, that this operation is really conducive to cleanliness and health among those who practise it in southern climates. It was a preventive of the disease called the anthrax or carbuncle. It has also been considered as having a beneficial tendency in increasing the population in such a climate as that of Palestine.

Sickness and death. The Jews look upon it as a very laudable action, and a bounden duty, to visit the sick, and to assist them in the time of their distress.

When any one is apprehensive that his life is in danger, he sends for about ten persons, more or less, as he thinks convenient; one of whom, at least, must be a rabbi. Then, in a solemn manner, he repeats the general alphabetical confession,

and utters a prayer, in which he "humbly begs of God, if it be his blessed will, to restore him to his former state of health;" or, if this may not be granted, he then recommends his soul to him, and prays that his death may be accepted as an expiation for his sins. If his conscience is overcharged with any sin, or if he has any secret which he would reveal, he declares it to the rabbi. After all this he begs pardon of God, and of all such as he has at any time offended, and forgives, likewise, all such as have offended him, and even his most inveterate enemies. In case he has any children, or domestics, he calls them to his bedside and gives them his benediction; and if his own father or mother be present, he receives their blessing. If he has an inclination to make his will, and to dispose of his worldly estate, he has free liberty to execute it in such a manner as he thinks most convenient.

There are some who take care to have a public prayer put up for them in the synagogue, and change their names, as an indication of their change of life; and, as it is said, to cheat the devil. At such times, they promise and bestow their charity on the synagogues, as well as on the poor.

When the person who is ill is in danger of death, or just expiring, they never leave him alone, but watch with him day and night. They salute him, and take their last farewell, just at the moment when the soul is separating from the body. To be present at the separation of the soul from the body, especially if the person be a learned or pious man, in their opinion, is not only a laudable, but a meritorious action. The person who is present when the sick man gives up the ghost, according to ancient custom, tears some part of his own garments. This rent is generally made on the right side of the forepart of the clothes, and must be the eighth of a yard in length. When they mourn for a father or mother, all the clothes must be rent on the *right* side; whereas the *left* side of the outward garment, only, is torn, if it be for a distant relation. The rent is always from top to bottom; whereas that of the ancient priests was formerly from bottom to top. In Holland the Jews make it on the top, near the buttons, and at the expiration of seven or eight days have it sewn up again. In some parts of Germany the Jewish women, who lose their husbands, usually tear their head-dress. It is said, that if the widow intends to marry again, she is only to pretend to do it; for if she actually tears them, it is a certain sign that she intends to remain a widow.

There are some who, at such a time, will throw into the street all the water which they have in the house, or can find

in the neighbourhood. This, which is accounted an ancient custom, is intended to denote that somebody lies dead not far from the place.

Funerals. As soon as any one is dead, his eyes and mouth are closed, his body is laid upon the ground in a sheet, his face is covered, and a lighted taper is set by his head.

A pair of linen drawers is immediately provided, and some women are sent for to sew them; who, for the most part, perform this friendly office out of charity and good will. After this the corpse is thoroughly washed with warm water, in which camomile and dried roses have been boiled. In the next place, a shirt and drawers are put on, and over them some put a kind of surplice of fine linen, a taled, or square cloak, and a white cap on the head.

They now bend his thumb close to the palm of the hand, and tie it with the strings of his Taled; for he goes to the other world with his veil on. The thumb thus bent, stands in the form of SHADDAI, which is one of God's attributes; this is the reason which the Jews give for a custom, that secures the body from the devil's clutches. The deceased, in all other respects, has his hand open as a testimony that he relinquishes all his worldly goods. The washing of the body is intended to denote that the deceased purified himself from the pollutions of this life by a sincere repentance, and was ready and prepared to receive a better from the hands of the Almighty. Buxtorf says, that they burn wine, and put an egg in it, and therewith anoint the head of the corpse. Some perform this unction at their own houses, and others at *the house of the living*; that is, the Hebrew dialect, the church-yard. He adds, that after this ablution all the apertures of the body are stopped up.

When dressed, he is laid on his back in a coffin made on purpose, with one linen cloth under, and another over him. If the party deceased be a person of considerable note, his coffin is made in some places with a pointed top; and if a rabbi, a considerable number of books is laid upon it. Then the coffin is covered with black, and a small bag of earth is deposited under the head of the defunct. The coffin is now nailed up, and conveyed to a grave as near the place as possible where the family of the deceased are interred.

All the people now crowd round about it; and since the attendance on a corpse, and the conveyance of it to the grave, is looked upon as a very meritorious action, they all carry it upon their shoulders by turns, some part of the way. In some

places the mourners follow the corpse with lighted flambeaux in their hands, singing some melancholy anthem as they march along. In others, this ceremony is omitted; the relations, however, who are in mourning, accompany the corpse in tears to the grave.

In this solemn manner, the dead are carried to the burial-place, which is most commonly a field set apart for that purpose, called BETH HACHAIM, or "*House of the living*:" the dead being looked upon as living, on account of their immortal souls. When the deceased is laid in his grave, if he has been a person of any extraordinary merit, there is generally a proper person present, who makes his funeral oration. As soon as this eulogium is over, they repeat the prayer called RIDDUC ADDIN, "*the justice of the judgment*," which begins with these words of Deuteronomy, chapter xxxii. verse 4, "He is the rock, his work is perfect; for all his ways are judgment," &c.

In some countries, when a coffin is brought within a short space of the grave, or before it is taken out of the house, ten men go in a solemn manner seven times round it, repeating a prayer for his soul; this is the practice in Holland: but in other parts this ceremony is not observed. The nearest relation now rends some part of his garments, and then the corpse is put into the grave, and covered with earth; each friend throwing a handful or spadeful in, till the grave is filled up. The coffin must be so placed in the grave, as not to touch another coffin.

The Jews account it a sin, either in man or woman, to tear their flesh, or their hair, on this melancholy occasion, either when they weep over the deceased, or at any time afterwards; for, in Deuteronomy chapter xiv., it is written, "Ye shall not cut yourselves," &c. But as soon as the coffin is conveyed out of the house for sepulture, a brick, or broken pot, is thrown out after it, to denote that all sorrow is driven away. Those who, during the life-time of the deceased, neglected to be reconciled with him, must touch his great toe, and beg his pardon, in order that the deceased may not accuse them at God's tribunal, on the day of the resurrection.

At their departure from the grave, every one tears up two or three handfuls of grass, and throws it behind him, repeating, at the same time, these words of the 72d Psalm, verse 6, "They of the city shall flourish like the grass of the earth." This they do by way of acknowledgment of the resurrection. Then they wash their hands, sit down, and rise again, *nine times* successively, repeating the 91st Psalm, "He that dwell-

eth in the secret place of the Most High." After this, they return to their respective places of abode.

When the nearest relations of the party deceased are returned home from the burial, be they father, mother, child, husband, wife, brother, or sister, they directly seat themselves on the ground; and having pulled off their shoes, refresh themselves with bread, wine, and hard eggs, which are placed before them; according as it is written in the 31st chapter of Proverbs, verse 6. "Give strong drink unto him that is ready to perish, and wine to those that be heavy of heart," &c. He whose usual place it is to crave a blessing on their meals, now introduces appropriate words of consolation. In the Levant, and in several other places, the friends of the deceased send in provisions for ten days successively, morning and night, to some of the nearest relatives, for the entertainment of such guests as they think proper to invite; and on a day appointed, they themselves partake of the feast, and condole with them.

When the dead body is conveyed from the house, his coverlet is folded double, his blankets are rolled up, and laid upon a mat; afterwards, a lamp is lighted up at the bed's head, which burns for a week without intermission.

Such as are related to the deceased, reside in the house for ten days together, and during all that time sit and eat upon the ground, except on the sabbath day, on which they go with a select company of their friends and acquaintance to the synagogue, where they are more generally condoled with, than at any other place. During these ten days, they are not allowed to do any manner of business; neither can the husband lie with his wife. Ten persons, at least, go every night and morning to pray with them under their confinement. Some add to their devotions on this solemn occasion, the 49th Psalm, "Hear this all ye people," &c., and afterwards pray for the soul of their deceased friend.

The Jews dress themselves in such mourning as is the fashion of the country in which they live, there being no divine direction relating thereunto. For full thirty days, the mourner is not permitted to bathe, perfume, or shave his beard. Indeed, tattered clothes, sprinkled with ashes, and a general slovenly appearance, point out the mourning Jew, during this period.

After the expiration of the ten days, they leave the house, and go to the synagogue, where several of them order lamps to be lighted on each side of the *HECHAL*, or *Ark*, procure prayers to be said, and offer *charitable contributions for the soul of the deceased*. This ceremony is repeated at the close

of each month, and likewise of the year: and if the person who is dead be a rabbi, or a man of worth and distinction, they make his *ESPED* upon those days; that is, a funeral harangue in commendation of his virtues.

A son goes daily to the synagogue, morning and night, and there repeats the prayer called *CADISH*, that is, *Holy*, for the soul of his mother or father, for eleven months successively; in order to deliver him from purgatory; and some of them fast annually on the day of the death of their respective relatives.

In some places, they set a monument over the grave, and carve the name of the deceased upon it; also the day, month, and year of his decease, and a line or two, by way of encomium.—Some Jews go, from time to time, to the tombs of their acquaintances and relatives, to say their prayers.

They seldom mourn for such as are suicides, or who die under excommunication. So far, indeed, are they from regretting the loss of them, that they set a stone over the coffin, to signify that they ought to be stoned to death, if they had had their deserts.

SECT. IV.—ECCLESIASTICAL DISCIPLINE—WORSHIP—FESTIVALS, &c.

THE Sanhedrin, the supreme judicial authority formerly existing among the Jews, was instituted in the time of the Maccabees, (some ascribe to it an earlier origin,) and was composed of seventy-two members. The high priest generally sustained the office of president in this tribunal. The next officers in authority were the first and second vice-presidents. The members who were admitted to a seat in the Sanhedrin were as follows: 1. *Chief priests*, who are often mentioned in the New Testament and in Josephus, as if they were many in number. They consisted partly of priests who had previously exercised the high-priesthood, and partly of the heads of the twenty-four classes of priests, who were called, in an honorary way, high, or chief priests. 2. *Elders*, that is to say, the princes of the tribes, and the heads of family associations. 3. The *Scribes*, or learned men. Not all the scribes and elders were members, but only those who were chosen or nominated by the proper authority.

The Talmudists assert that this tribunal had secretaries and apparitors, and the very nature of the case forbids us to doubt the truth of the assertion. The place of their sitting, however,

is a question on which there is more difference of opinion. The Talmudists state that it was in the temple, but Josephus mentions the place of assembling, and also the archives, as being *not far* from the temple, on Mount Zion. But in the trial of Jesus, it appears they were assembled, and that very hastily, in the palace of the high-priest.

When they met, they took their seats in such a way as to form a semicircle, and the presidents and two vice-presidents occupied the centre. At each end was a secretary; one registered the votes of acquittal—the other of condemnation. The proper period of sitting was all the time between the morning and evening service.

The Sanhedrin was the great court of judicature: it judged of all capital offences against the law: it had the power of inflicting punishment by scourging and by death. Its power had been limited in the time of Christ, by the interference of the Romans, and the Consistory itself terminated its functions upon the destruction of Jerusalem. They were never able to re-establish themselves since,—nor is any thing related of them in the history of our own times, except the council which the Jews held in Hungary in the 17th century, and the convocation held at Paris, under the auspices of Napoleon in 1806.

The worship of the synagogue, with its appendant school or law court, where lectures were given, and knotty points of the

The worship law debated, became the great bond of national of the syna- union, and has continued, though the monarchical-
gogue. centre of unity in Tiberias disappeared in a few centuries, to hold together the scattered nation in the closest uniformity. The worship of the synagogue is extremely simple. Wherever ten Jews were found, there a synagogue ought to be formed. The Divine Presence, the invisible Shechinah, descends not but where ten are met together; if fewer, the Divine Visitant was supposed to say, "Wherefore come I, and no one is here?" It was a custom, therefore, in some of the more numerous communities, to appoint ten "men of leisure," whose business it was to form a congregation.* The buildings were plain; in their days of freedom it was thought right that the house of prayer to God, from its situation or its form, should overtop the common dwellings of man; but in their days of humiliation, in strange countries, the lowly synagogue, the type of their condition, was content to lurk undis-

* Such seems to be the solution of a question on which learned volumes have been written.

turbed in less conspicuous situations. Even in Palestine the synagogues must have been small, for Jerusalem was said to contain 460 or 480; the foreign Jews, from the different quarters of the world, seem each to have had their separate building, where they communicated in prayer with their neighbours and kindred. Such were the synagogues of the Alexandrians, the Cyrenians, and others. Besides the regular synagogues, which were roofed, in some places they had chapels or oratories, open to the air, chiefly perhaps where their worship was not so secure of protection from the authorities; these were usually in retired and picturesque situations, in groves, or on the sea shore. In the distribution of the synagogue, some remote resemblance to the fallen Temple was kept up. The entrance was from the east; in the centre stood an elevated tribune or rostrum, in the place of the great altar, where they only permitted sacrifice, and if from an humble and contrite heart, doubtless most acceptable to their Almighty Father, prayer was constantly offered, and the book of the Law was read. At the west end stood a chest, in which the book was laid up, making the place, as it were, the humble Holy of Holies, though now no longer separated by a veil, nor protected by the Cherubim and Mercy Seat. Particular seats, usually galleries, were railed off for the women.

The chief religious functionary in the synagogue was called the angel, or bishop. He ascended the tribune, repeated or chanted the prayers, his head during the ceremony being covered with a veil. He called the reader from his place, opened the book before him, pointed out the passage, and over-looked him, that he read correctly. The readers, who were three in number on the ordinary days, seven on the morning of the sabbath, five on festivals, were selected from the body of the people. The Law of course was read, and the prayers likewise repeated, in the Hebrew language. The days of public service in the synagogue were the Sabbath, the second and fifth days of the week, Monday and Thursday. There was an officer in the synagogues out of Palestine, and probably even within its borders, called an interpreter, who translated the Law into the vernacular tongue, usually Greek in the first case, or Syro-Chaldaic in the latter. Besides the bishop, there were three elders, or rulers of the synagogue, who likewise formed a court or consistory for the judgment of all offences. They had the power of inflicting punishment by scourging; from Origen's account, the Patriarch of Tiberias had assumed the power of life and death. But the great control over the public mind lay in the awful sentence of excommunication.

The anathema of the synagogue cut off the offender from the Israel of God; he became an outcast of society.

At present, the Jews select for the site of their synagogues some eminences, in those cities where the exercise of Judaism is allowed. The fabric must be higher than the common houses, for they say, "The house of our God must be magnificent." The Jews are obliged religiously to observe the respect due to the synagogue, and to forbear talking of business there, or even thinking on any worldly advantages. They must likewise avoid sleeping there; and looking round about, &c. They must continue in a modest posture, and not suffer themselves to run into any indecency.

The title or denomination of rabbi is very ancient; for in the Jewish scriptures, both the words RABBI and RABBONI

Rabbis and are to be found, which are synonymous terms. doctors.

The Pharisees of old assumed this title to themselves, with abundance of pride and arrogance, pretending to be the sole masters and doctors of the people; and they carried this pretension to such a pitch, as to make the law subject to their traditions. Jesus Christ very severely reprimanded them for this their insolent deportment.

The rabbis, besides the privilege of preaching, and instructing their pupils, have that of binding and loosing, that is, of determining whether a thing be forbidden or allowed. When this power is conferred upon them, they have the five books of Moses, and a *key*, put into their hands. They create new doctors, and ordain them by imposition of hands, as Moses, just before his death, laid his hands on Joshua, his successor, and gave him his benediction; but they limit and restrain their power as they see most convenient: one being confined to interpret the law, or such questions only as relate thereunto; and another to judge of controversies arising upon those questions.

At present, according to Buxtorf, the rabbis are elected with very little ceremony. He who is to ordain the new rabbi, publishes aloud to all the congregation, either on the sabbath, or some other solemn festival, that such a one deserves to be admitted amongst the rabbis, for his religious education, sound learning, and knowledge of the Oral Law; and exhorts the people to own and reverence him as such, denouncing excommunication against all those who neglect his admonitions. He then gives the candidate the certificate of his merit and ability, as a *Doctor*, or *Hacham*; and the ceremony is often concluded with an elegant entertainment given to the old rabbis, and to the rest of his friends and acquaintance.

The HACHAM RAU, who are generally much respected, de-



1. Sabbath Lamp. 2. Unleavened Bread. 3. Rams Horns. p. 86. 6.



Search for leaven. p. 94.

termine all manner of debates ; settle what things are lawful, and unlawful ; and pass judgment upon religious and civil affairs. These men perform all nuptial ceremonies, and issue out divorces. They preach the practice of virtue and integrity, they interpret the laws, when qualified, and are the principals of the academies. They have the uppermost seats in the synagogues and assemblies ; and have a power to punish the disobedient, and to excommunicate them when they are obstinate, or perverse.

The privileges of this office are, to be free from all taxes and impositions. If a rabbi has any goods, he has a right to sell them first, and before all others, that the time he spends in negotiating his affairs, may be no impediment to his studies ; his business is the first, likewise, to be despatched in all proceedings at law ; and he is allowed to sit upon the bench with the judges, &c. Some of these privileges, however, are abolished ; the Jews having, at present, no sovereign authority.

There is no festival which the Jews have so great a veneration for, as the sabbath day ; because they say it was instituted immediately after the creation of the world, and is mentioned in various places, and at sundry times, in their sacred writings ; particularly in the decalogue, wherein the performance of the least thing upon that day is forbidden, and a general rest from all labours is commanded. The sabbath.

They must not either kindle fire, nor extinguish it, upon this day, in compliance with what is written in the 35th chapter of Exodus, verse 3. "Ye shall kindle no fire throughout your habitations upon the sabbath day." Nay, they are not allowed to touch it ; not even to stir it up. They are not suffered even to light up or extinguish a lamp ; they may employ, however, any servant that is not a Jew, to kindle their fire ; if they do not, they either dispose it so that it lights of itself, or else they sit in the cold.—This the Jews do, even in Russia, or any other cold country.

They dress no meat upon the sabbath ; neither are they allowed to taste any thing that has been dressed, or that grew, or was gathered on that day.

They are not allowed to carry any burden on that day ; so that they wear no more clothes than what is absolutely necessary to cover them. Their exactness extends even to the garb of their women, children, and servants, and to the loading of their beasts.

They are forbidden on this day to talk of any worldly af-

fairs; to make any bargain with respect to buying and selling; or, to give or take any thing by way of payment.

Neither must they handle or touch any of the tools of their trade, or any other things, the use whereof is prohibited on the sabbath day.

They are not allowed to walk above a mile, that is to say, two thousand cubits, out of any market town or village. But they can walk as long as they please on the sabbath day, provided they go not out of the suburbs of the town wherein they live. They always regard the suburbs as a part of the town; and when they have a mind to go out of town upon this day, they invariably measure the distance allowed for walking, from the end of the suburb.

They never engage in any work on the Friday, but what they can accomplish with ease before the evening; and whatever is necessary for the sabbath, is prepared beforehand. About an hour before sunset, they take the provision which is intended for the next day, and deposit it in a warm place; after which all manner of work is over. In some towns, a man is appointed on purpose, to give notice about half an hour before the sabbath begins, that every one may cease from their labours in convenient and due time.

The Jewish sabbath begins half an hour before sunset; and, consequently, from that instant, all prohibitions are strictly observed. For this reason, the women, even the most necessitous, are obliged, previously, to light up a lamp, which has seven lights, emblematical of the seven days of the week. This lamp burns the greatest part of the night.

In order to begin the sabbath well, many of them put on clean linen, wash their hands and face, and go to the synagogue, where they say the 92d Psalm, "It is a good thing to give thanks to the Lord," &c. with their common prayers. They also thank God, that by his separation of them from the rest of mankind, he has reserved and chosen their nation from all others, as his only favourites. To these prayers and thanksgivings, they add a commemoration of the sabbath, in these words, from the 2d of Genesis, "Thus the heavens were finished, &c.—And God blessed the seventh day," &c.

They go directly home from the synagogue, and their usual salutation to each other afterwards, is, "a good sabbath to you," and not "good night," or "good morrow." Moreover, the fathers bless their children, and the doctors their pupils, on that day; others add to these benedictions, several portions of their sacred writings, in commemoration of the sabbath;

some before meat, and some after, according to the custom of the place where they sojourn.

When the whole family is seated at supper, the master of the house holds a glass of wine in his hand, and pronounces these words, out of the 2d of Genesis, "Thus the heavens were finished," &c. He then returns God thanks for having instituted and appointed the strict observance of the sabbath, and blesses the wine; he now drinks some part of it himself, looking steadfastly on the sabbath lamps, and then gives a small quantity to such as sit at the table with him. After this, he repeats the 23d Psalm, "The Lord is my shepherd," &c. Then, he blesses the bread, holding it up on high with both his hands, whilst he pronounces the name of the Lord. He now distributes it all round, and the family eat and amuse themselves that evening and the next day as agreeably as they can. Supper being over, they wash their hands, and some Jews, after they have eaten, repeat the 104th Psalm, "Bless the Lord, O my soul," &c.

They preach sometimes in the forenoon, and sometimes in the afternoon, in their synagogues, or other places appointed for divine worship, and take their text from the Pentateuch, out of the lessons for the day. They preach in the vulgar tongue, and in their sermons they recommend virtue, and discourage vice, illustrating their notions with passages from the Pentateuch, and from their most celebrated rabbis. These quotations are always delivered in the Hebrew language.

In the evening they go to the synagogue again, and join the remembrance of the sabbath with their common prayers; and three persons read out of the Pentateuch the beginning of the section for the week following.—They have likewise a commemoration of the dead, and sometimes a prayer for them on the sabbath, after which, those who can afford it, are very charitable and beneficent to the poor.

They usually make three meals in the twenty-four hours of the sabbath; the first is on the Friday, after evening service; the other two on the day following. The cloth is never removed during the whole time.

As soon as night comes on, and they can discover *three stars* in the heavens, of any considerable magnitude, the sabbath is over, and they are allowed to go to work; because the evening prayer, which they rather delay than hasten, is then begun.

To the usual prayer, for the evening, they add a remembrance of the sabbath, which is distinguished from the other days of the week; also the 91st Psalm, "He that dwelleth in

the secret place of the Most High," &c. To this, several portions of their scripture, and several benedictions and good wishes, are likewise added.

As before observed, they make the sabbath last as long as they can, by prolonging their hymns and prayers; since it is a received opinion amongst them, that the souls of the damned, as well as those in purgatory, endure no torments upon that day.

The new moon is a festival, because it is instituted and appointed in the book of Numbers; and because there was a new and grand sacrifice offered on that day.

The new moon. This festival is sometimes part of two several days, that is, the end of one day, and the beginning of another. They are not debarred from working or trading upon this day; the women, only, who are exempted from all labour during the festival, lay aside their work, and they all indulge themselves a little more than usual in the way of living.

The Jews say that the new moon is in a peculiar manner the women's festival, in commemoration of their liberality in parting with their most valuable jewels, to contribute to the magnificence of divine service. This action, so singular in a sex whose pride principally consists in dress and appearance, and to whom nothing is more dear, was performed on the new moon of the month of March.

In their prayers they make mention of the first day of the month, and repeat from the 113th to the 118th Psalm, on that day. They bring out the Pentateuch, and four persons read it, to which is added, the prayer called MUSSAF, or *addition*. They also read the institution of the sacrifice, which was formerly offered on this day.

Some Jewish devotees fast on the vigil of this festival, and beg of God that the new moon may prove propitious to their wishes.

Some few days after, the Jews, being assembled by night on a terrace, or in an open court, consecrate this planet by praising God, "who hath been pleased to renew the moon, and who will, in the same manner, renew the Jews, his elect people," &c.—The prayer concludes with a blessing addressed to God, through the moon, the work of his hands. Three leaps, which are to be regarded as the transports of a holy joy, attend this benediction; immediately after which, they say to the moon, "May it be as impossible for my enemies to hurt me, as it is for me to touch thee."—These words are succeeded by several imprecations against their enemies. They now

join in a particular prayer to God, in which they style him the Creator of the planets, and the restorer of the new moon. Then, with their hands devoutly lifted up towards heaven, they beg of God to deliver them from all evil; and having remembered King David, they salute each other, and depart. Eclipses of the sun and moon, are looked on, by some Jews, as ill omens.

The Talmudists do not agree in fixing the time when the world began. Some insist that it was in the spring, that is, in the month NISAN, which is our *March*; others, that it was in autumn, that is to say, in the New-year's month TISRI, which answers to our *September*. day.

This last notion has so far prevailed, that they begin their year from that time. And notwithstanding it is written in the 12th chapter of Exodus, of the month NISAN, "This month shall be unto you the beginning of months." Yet afterwards they altered it, and began their year with the month TISRI, or *September*.

From thence came the feast ROSCH HASANA, or *New-Year's Day*, which is kept on the two first days of TISRI; for, in Leviticus, chapter xxiii. verse 24, it is written, "In the seventh month, in the seventh day of the month, shall ye have a sabbath," &c. During this festival all manual operations and transactions in trade are entirely laid aside.

They hold, from tradition, that on this day particularly God Almighty judges the actions of the year past, and orders all things that shall happen for the year to come. From the first day of the month ELUL, or *August*, therefore, they begin their penance; which consists in plunging themselves into cold water, and in confessing themselves, scourging, and beating their breasts with their fists, while in the water. In some places they wash themselves before it is day, say their prayers, and acknowledge their manifold sins and iniquities, and repeat some penitential psalms. There are many who give alms without ceasing until the day of absolution. This they continue forty days, and *sound a horn* on the beginning of the month Elul. On New-Year's-Eve they say all their prayers fasting.

These religious ceremonies are generally observed a week, at least, before the feast; and on the eve thereof they generally employ their time in washing, and procuring, by way of discipline, thirty-nine stripes to be given them; as it is written in Deuteronomy, chapter xxv. "Forty stripes he may give him, and not exceed," &c. This flagellation is called MALEUTH.

The ancient Jews formerly laid all their sins upon a he-

goat, which afterwards they drove into the desert; but the modern Jews, instead of a goat, now throw them upon the fish. After dinner they repair to the brink of a pond, or river, and shake their clothes over it with all their force. This practice is taken from a passage of the prophet Micah, chapter vii. verse 19, "He will have compassion on us; he will subdue our iniquities, and cast all our sins into the depths of the sea."

After these two holy days are over, the Jews still continue to rise before day to say their prayers, fast, and do penance,

until the 10th of the month Tisri, which is the fast, or day of expiation, and called JOM HACH-
The fast of expiation.

IPUR; for they consider that the Supreme Being is employed in examining the actions of mankind during the first nine days, and that he pronounces sentence on the tenth. In the 23d chapter of Leviticus it is said, "On the tenth of the seventh month, there shall be a day of atonement," &c., and during that day all manner of work is laid aside, as on the sabbath. They observe this fast with such strictness, that they neither eat nor drink any thing; thinking, by this abstinence, that their names will be enrolled in the Book of Life, and blotted out of the Book of Death, wherein they would assuredly be found without due repentance.

They indulge themselves in eating on the eve of this festival, because the next day is a fast. Many of them wash, and have thirty-nine stripes given them, called MALEUTH; and such as are possessed at that time of other people's effects, are commanded to make restitution. They likewise ask pardon of such as they have injured, and forgive those that have injured them. Nay, they seek them out, and sue for peace and reconciliation; and if this be refused, they protest against such an implacable spirit before three witnesses, and thrice return to the charge; after which the penitent's conscience is entirely discharged from all animosity and hatred. They likewise give alms, and show all the demonstrations of a sincere repentance.

Two or three hours before the sun sets they go to prayers, and then to supper; but all must be over before sun-set. They now dress themselves in new robes, or put on their funeral clothes, and thus attired, each with a taper in his hand, they go without their shoes to the synagogue, which, on this night, is splendidly illuminated with lamps and candles. There each man lights his taper, and repeats several prayers and confessions in a loud, but melancholy tone, as a demonstration of the sincerity of his repentance. The confession of

each penitent is alphabetically digested, each sin having its proper letter, so as to be recollected with the greatest ease. The external signs of godly sorrow, at once conspicuous in a repentant Jew, who condemns himself before God, by a long account of his transgressions, is certainly very remarkable. These signs are dirty tattered clothes, mourning, or shrouds; a melancholy and dejected countenance, a long beard; down-cast eyes, made languid by penance, and disposed to weeping; a holy eagerness determining the penitent to press through the crowd of devotees, and be foremost in the synagogue; and so perfect a distraction as to deprive him of the use of his senses, whilst he is running over the alphabet of his sins. In short, he appears to have just strength enough to support his body during the meditation of the soul. This lasts three hours at least; after which they go home to bed. Some, indeed, stay all night long, and all the next day, in the synagogue, saying their prayers and repeating psalms. In the mean time, the women light up candles and lamps at home, and according as the light burns, prognosticate good or evil fortune.

It ought to be remarked, that those who have led a scandalous and dissolute life, are not only admitted, but *invited*, into the congregation, on the first evening of the festival. Two Rabbis, who stand on each side of the chaunter, perform this solemn invitation, and declare to the congregation, "That they are allowed to pray with the wicked."—After which, the chaunter opens the *HECHAL*, and sings a prayer of moderate length, which the congregation repeat after him, but not so loud as to be heard. This cancels all rash vows, oaths, and resolutions, of the preceding year, in case they were made voluntarily, without any compulsion.

The next morning, such as went home, repair again by day-break to the synagogue, dressed as before, and there stay till night, standing all the time, saying their prayers without intermission, repeating psalms and confessions, and beseeching God to pardon all their transgressions.

In the course of the service, various portions of scripture are read, particularly part of Leviticus, chapter xxvi., Numbers, chapter xxix., and Isaiah, chapter lvii. They mention in their prayers the additional sacrifice of the day, and entreat God to build their sanctuary, to gather their dispersions among the Gentiles, and conduct them to Jerusalem, where they may offer the sacrifice of atonement, agreeably to the Mosaic law. In the afternoon service, besides portions of the law and prophets, the greatest part of the book of Jonah is read.

Some Jews prepare their tents for the Feast of Tabernacles, immediately after the Expiation.

On the fifteenth day of the same month, **TISRI**, is the Feast of Tents, Tabernacles, or Booths; which is called **SUCCOTH**,

The feast of Tabernacles. in commemoration of their encampment in the wilderness, when they departed out of Egypt; and under which they were preserved as a nation for forty years together, in the midst of frightful and barren deserts. In the 23d chapter of Leviticus, it is written, "In the 15th day of the seventh month, when ye have gathered in the fruit of the land, ye shall keep a feast to the Lord seven days; on the first day shall be a sabbath, and on the eighth day shall be a sabbath. And ye shall take you on the first day the boughs of goodly trees, branches of palm trees, and the boughs of thick trees, and willows of the brook; and ye shall rejoice before the Lord, your God, seven days. Ye shall dwell in booths seven days; all that are Israelites born shall dwell in booths: that your generations may know that I made the children of Israel to dwell in booths, when I brought them out of the land of Egypt."

Every one therefore makes a booth, or tent, in some place near his house, which he covers with leaves, and adorns in the best manner that he can. The rabbis have been very punctual as to the fashion and nature of these booths, as well as their dimensions. No tent must be more than twenty cubits high, nor less than ten spans. Such as are rich adorn them with tapestry, over which they hang boughs of trees laden with fruit, as oranges, lemons, and grapes. These tents must be neither set up under a house nor tree. They eat and drink in these tents, and some lie all night in them; or at least spend in them so much time of the night and day, as they used to pass at home, during the eight days that the festival lasts.

It continues nine days in reality, although the law instituted and commanded seven; but ancient custom has added one; and another day was ordained over and above for the solemn assembly, in Numbers, chapter xxix. verse 35. The two first, and the two last days of this festival, like those of the Passover, are very solemn; but the other five are not so strictly observed.

This festival of Tents, or Tabernacles, begins at home, with some particular benedictions, and is succeeded by a supper. Private devotion now succeeds the public; and the father of the family never begins to consecrate the festival, till he has been first at prayers in the synagogue till night. They leave

their tents at the end of the eighth day, as soon as night draws on.

On the 14th of the month ADAR, which is our March, or February, the feast of PURIM is observed, in commemoration of Esther, who upon that day, preserved the people of Israel from a total extirpation by the conspiracy of Haman, who was hanged, with all his children. This feast was called PURIM, because it was written in the 9th chapter of Esther, "Therefore they called those days PURIM," &c.; the word signifying *Lots* or *Chances*; for Haman, their enemy, had cast lots to destroy them on those two days. The feast of Chances.

The first only, however, is strictly and solemnly observed. They fast on the eve, but during these two days they may traffic, or do any manner of work; yet, on the first day, though under no obligation, they voluntarily abstain from both.

On the first night, they go to the synagogue, where, after their ordinary prayers, they commemorate their happy deliverance from that fatal conspiracy, and the Chazan reads and explains the whole book of Esther, which is written on vellum, and rolled up like the Pentateuch. They also call it MEGHILLA, or *volume*. The CHAZAN, or *Reader*, is allowed to sit at this lesson, whereas he must stand while he reads the law. After he has unrolled the volume, he pronounces three prayers, and returns thanks to Almighty God, for calling them together to share this ceremony; and for delivering them out of the merciless hands of Haman. He then reads the history of Haman and Esther.

The Jews observe similar ceremonies in the service of the next morning, and read on this day out of the Pentateuch, the 17th chapter of Exodus, verse 8, "Then came Amalek," &c. They have, likewise, particular prayers and blessings for this happy occasion.

On this feast they bestow public alms upon the poor, and all relations and friends visit, and send each other presents of such things as are good to eat. Scholars make presents to their tutors; masters to their servants; and persons of distinction to their inferiors. In short, the whole day is spent in cheerfulness and gayety, as it is written in the 9th chapter of Esther, "That they should make them days of feasting and joy, and of sending portions one to another, and gifts to the poor," &c.

When the year consists of two ADARS, the Jews call the 14th day of the first ADAR, the little PURIM; but it is merely nominal for none of the above ceremonies are observed thereon.

The 15th day of the month NISAN, which of-
 The feast of ten answers to our *April*, is the first day of the
 the Passover. Passover, which is called PESACH, or *the pas-*
sage over, in commemoration of the departure of the Jews from
 Egypt. It continues a whole week; but such as live out of
 Jerusalem, and its territories, make it hold eight days, accord-
 ing to the ancient custom, when the new moon, by the SAN-
 HEDRIN'S order, was proclaimed, without any computation.
 This festival is ordained in the 12th chapter of Exodus,
 and in several other parts of the Bible. The sabbath,
 which precedes the Passover, is called the GRAND SABBATH;
 on which day the rabbis preach a sermon on the Paschal
 Lamb.

The two first and two last days of the Passover, are solemn
 festivals, on which no person is permitted either to work, nor
 do any manner of business; nay, they keep them as strictly as
 the sabbath; only that they make a fire, dress their meat, and
 carry what things they want from place to place. On the four
 middle days they are only obliged to refrain from work, but
 are permitted to touch money.

During these eight days they must neither eat, nor have,
 any leavened bread, or any leaven in their houses, nor even
 in their custody; so that they eat none but unleavened bread
 all that time, according to Exodus, chapter xii. verses 15, 16,
 17. This bread they call AZYMA.

In order to obey this precept as punctually as possible, the
 master takes a wax candle, and searches the house over with
 the utmost care, to clear it of every thing that is fermented,
 prying into every corner, and even into all the trunks and
 cupboards. He now beseeches God to make up the defects
 of his search, "that all the leavened bread which is in the
 house, may become like the dust of the earth, and be reduced
 to nothing." When the house is well scoured, they white-
 wash it, and supply it with new table and kitchen furniture, or
 with such as is reserved for the service of this day only. If
 they have been used before, and are of metal, they must be
 first heated in a forge, and newly polished before they can be
 used; because nothing which has touched leavened bread may
 be made use of during those eight days. About eleven o'clock
 on the next day, they burn a bit of bread, to give notice, that
 the prohibition against leavened bread is then begun; and this
 ceremony is attended with a particular declaration, that the head
 of the family has no leaven in his custody; that if he has, it is
 unknown to him, and that he hath done to the utmost of his
 power to prevent it.

They go to prayers in the evening; and at their return home, the master, with his family and other domestics, after washing their hands, sit down to a table which is duly prepared for their entertainment in the day time, and set off with all the elegance and grandeur that the circumstances of each person will admit of. Instead of the ceremony which was formerly observed, in conformity to the 12th chapter of Exodus, *viz.* "To eat the lamb with unleavened bread, and bitter herbs," &c. they have some small pieces of lamb, or kid, dressed with unleavened bread. Sometimes they have a plate covered, in which there are three mysterious cakes, one for the high priest, one for the Levites, and a third for the people; also the blade-bone of a shoulder of lamb, or, at least, some part of it. The Portuguese Jews have the bone on the table during the whole eight days of the Passover. When the shoulder is served up whole, at this ceremony, they have a hard egg with it. To this they add a dish representing the bricks which their ancestors were formerly forced to make in Egypt. This meat is a thick paste, composed of apples, almonds, nuts, figs, &c. which they dress in wine, and season with cinnamon, broke only into pieces, to represent the straw that they made use of in the making of their bricks. In another dish, they have celery, lettuce, chervil, cresses, wild succory, and parsley. These are their *bitter* herbs. A cruet full of vinegar, and another of oil, are set on the table near the sallad.

The Jews make a great difference between the ancient and modern way of celebrating the Passover. Formerly, they used to eat the lamb roasted whole; but ever since their sacrifices have been abolished, which could be offered no where but at Jerusalem, they roast one part of it, and boil another; nay, sometimes cut it in pieces, which is enough to prevent its being sacrificed. The want of their sacrifices, likewise, obliges them, at present, to suppress several hymns, which relate to the Paschal lamb; and their dispersion obliges them, also, to beg of God to re-establish Jerusalem, the temple, and its sacrifices, and to deliver them at this day, as he formerly did their forefathers, from the tyranny of the Egyptians. The modern Jews conclude their meal with the unleavened bread, but in former times they ended it with the lamb; and they now omit girding their loins, taking a staff in their hands, and pulling off their shoes when they eat the lamb; all which was practised under the ancient law: but they take care, however, to preserve that humility and attention which are due to this religious ceremony. They decline their heads all the time they are eating; and such Jews as are eminent for their piety,

put nothing into their mouths, without meditating on the several mysteries with the utmost respect and veneration.

From the day after the Passover to the thirty-third day following, they spend their time in a kind of mourning; they neither marry, nor dress themselves in any new clothes, neither do they cut their hair, nor show any demonstrations of public joy; because, at that time, that is, from the day after the Passover until the thirty-third day after, there was once a great mortality amongst the pupils of Rabbi HACHIBA, who was one of their most celebrated doctors. After the death of some thousands, the sickness ceased on the thirty-third day of the HOMER. This day is therefore kept with general rejoicings, and puts an end to all appearance of sorrow or concern.

The Jews call the fifty days which intervene between the Passover and the feast of Pentecost, HOMER-DAYS. On the fiftieth day of the HOMER, which is the sixth of Pentecost. SIVAN, is celebrated the festival SHAVUOTH, or *of Weeks*; which is so named, because it is kept at the end of the seven weeks, which they compute from the Passover. At present, it is observed for two days together.

These two days are observed almost as strictly as the Passover holidays; for no work is allowed to be done upon them, neither can the Jews transact any business, nor, in short, do any thing more than on the sabbath: excepting that they are allowed to kindle their fire, dress their victuals, and carry whatever they want from place to place.

At the feast of Pentecost, five persons read the sacrifice of the day, and likewise the history of Ruth, because frequent mention is made there of the harvest. At this time they regale themselves with all sorts of dainties made of milk, which, in their opinion, is a symbol of the law, both on account of its sweetness and its whiteness; and as the Jews take a pride in having, as far as possible, the most express and lively images of the most remarkable circumstances that occurred at the birth of their religion, they never forget to serve up at table on this day, a cake made moderately thick, which they call the CAKE OF SINAI. This is to remind them of Mount Sinai, on which God gave them the law.

The Jews formerly called Pentecost the feast of the Harvest, and day of First Fruits, because the first of their corn and fruit was at that time offered in the temple, which was the close of this solemnity: but this can never be in Europe, harvest falling always much later than Whitsuntide. It might, however, bear this name in the land of Canaan, Arabia, and in the neighbourhood of the Red Sea.





Procession of Palms. p. 92.



Repast during the Feast of Tabernacles. p. 92.

Upon this day, their tradition assures us, that the law was given on Mount SINAI; for which reason they adorn their synagogues, the HECHAL, or Ark, the reading desk; also their lamps and candlesticks, and even their houses, with roses and other gay and odoriferous flowers and herbs, beautifully wreathed in the form of crowns and festoons. Of these decorations they are very profuse.

Their prayers are adapted to the feast, and they read the account of the sacrifice made on that day, out of the PENTATEUCH: also the AFTARA, out of the prophets, and the benediction for their prince. In the afternoon there is a sermon preached, in commemoration of the law.

When the second day of the feast is over, the ceremony of the HABDALLA is performed in the evening, as at the close of the Passover, to denote that the feast is concluded.

PART II.

HISTORY AND RELIGIOUS CUSTOMS OF THE MAHOMETANS.

CHAPTER I.

LIFE OF MAHOMET.

It is an often repeated, but just remark, that "Great effects frequently proceed from little causes." This is preeminently true when applied to Mahometanism; since there appears to be scarcely any ground of comparison between its author and the changes which his system has wrought in the world; changes by far greater than any others introduced into the civilized world by a single cause, if we except those wrought by Christianity.

Mahometanism has now existed for more than twelve hundred years. It has spread its delusions over some of the fairest portions of the globe. At the present time, Countries it may be found holding an almost undisputed sway throughout the Turkish dominions in Europe, Asia, and Africa; in the Barbary states, in the interior of Africa;

the eastern coast of Africa, and the island of Madagascar; in Arabia; the Persian states; the Russian states of Little Tartary, Astrachan, Kazan, Kirghis, Kazaks, &c.; amongst the independent Tartars; in a great part of Hindoostan; many of the eastern islands, as Malay, Sumatra, Java, &c. &c. and may be traced in different parts even of the vast empire of China. Its blinded and deluded votaries are estimated at from one hundred, to one hundred and twenty millions.

That Mahomet was a remarkable man in some respects must be admitted. He had doubtless native talents of a superior order, and an ambition for power and authority which scarcely knew any bounds; but these

The success of Mahometanism not to be attributed entirely to the genius of its author.

are insufficient to account for the religious and political ascendancy which he gained, or the wide diffusion and enduring permanence of that system of imposture which he palmed upon the world. The means employed by him were en-

tirely disproportioned to the success which crowned his efforts.

How then shall the problem of his success be resolved?

The state of the eastern world, where this imposture began, was indeed favourable to its spread. For several centuries following the apostolic age, the Christian religion subsisted in a great degree in its original purity and simplicity. But a gradual decline of the spirit of Christianity took place. Ignorance, superstition, and corruption prevailed to

Not to the state of the Christian world, although that was favourable.

an alarming extent; and by the commencement of the seventh century, the state of the Christian world had become gloomy and appalling. In the eastern parts of the Roman empire, especially Syria and the countries bordering upon Arabia, as well as in some parts of Arabia itself, these evils were aggravated by the numerous sects and heresies that prevailed, and by the incessant controversial wars which they waged with each other. The church was torn to pieces by the furious disputes of the Arians, Sabellians, Nestorians, Eutychians, and Collyridians, by whom the great doctrines of Christianity were so confounded with metaphysical subtleties and the jargon of schools, that they ceased, in great measure, to be regarded as a rule of life, or as pointing out the only way of salvation. The religion of the Gospel, the blessed source of peace, love, and unity among men, became, by the perverseness of sectaries, a firebrand of burning contention. Council after council was called—canon after canon was enacted—prelates were traversing the country in every direction in the prosecution of party purposes, resorting to every base art,

to obtain the authoritative establishment of their own peculiar tenets, and the condemnation and suppression of those of their adversaries. The contests also for the episcopal office ran so high, particularly in the West, that the opposing parties repeatedly had recourse to violence, and, in one memorable instance, the interior of a Christian church was stained by the blood of a number of the adherents of the rival bishops, who fell victims to their fierce contentions. Yet it is little to be wondered at, that these places of preferment should have been so greedily sought after by men of corrupt minds, when we learn, that they opened the direct road to wealth, luxury, and priestly power. Ancient historians represent the bishops of that day, as enriched by the presents of the opulent, as riding abroad in pompous state in chariots and sedans, and surpassing in the extravagance of their feasts, the sumptuousness of princes; while, at the same time, the most barbarous ignorance was fast overspreading the nations of Christendom, the ecclesiastical orders themselves not excepted. Among the bishops, the legitimate instructors and defenders of the church, numbers were to be found incapable of composing the poor discourses which their office required them to deliver to the people, or of subscribing the decrees which they passed in their councils. The little learning in vogue was chiefly confined to the monks. But they, instead of cultivating science, or diffusing any kind of useful knowledge, squandered their time in the study of the fabulous legends of pretended saints and martyrs, or in composing histories equally fabulous.

This woful corruption of doctrine and morals in the clergy was followed, as might be expected, by a very general depravity of the common people; and though we cannot suppose that God left himself altogether without witnesses in this dark period, yet the number of the truly faithful had dwindled down to a mere remnant, and the wide-spreading defection seemed to call aloud for the judgments of heaven.*

Although the state of the Christian world was thus favourable to the spread of the Mahometan imposture, this is by no means sufficient to account for its mighty results, and especially for its continuance, through such a lapse of time. We are forced, therefore, to look for a more adequate cause, and that cause can be nothing less than the special providence of God. Indeed, the appearance of the Arabian prophet in the world, and the rise, progress, and results of his imposture, are

But to the
special provi-
dence of God.

* Bush's Life of Mahomet.

The rise and progress of Mahometanism foretold in the scriptures. clearly foretold in the sacred volume, as the reader may see, Daniel vii. 8—26. Revelation ix. 1—19. All the reasons which the Infinite Mind may have had in permitting this arch-heresy to find a dwelling place on earth—to spread its branches so widely—to take such deep root—to bear such deadly fruit for so long a period—all the moral ends in view may be unknown; but the wisdom of God in this as well as every other dispensation of his providence, will ultimately stand forth as clearly as if the sun beams shone upon it, and the now inscrutable mystery will be justified by all his children.

We shall conclude these introductory remarks with the following quotation from Dr. Prideaux, on the moral ends of

The moral ends of it, according to Dr. Prideaux. Providence, in suffering this desolating scourge to arise at that particular period of the world, which gave it birth. "At length," says he, "having wearied the patience and long suffering of God, he raised up the Saracens to be the instruments of his wrath to punish them for it; who, taking advantage of the weakness of their power, and the distraction of counsels which their divisions had caused among them, overran, with a terrible devastation, all the eastern provinces of the Roman empire. And having fixed that tyranny over them which hath ever since afflicted those parts of the world, turned every where their churches into mosques, and their worship into a horrid superstition; and instead of that holy religion which they had abused, forced on them the abominable imposture of Mahomet. Thus those once glorious and most flourishing churches, for a punishment of their wickedness, being given up to the insult, ravage, and scorn of the worst of enemies, were on a sudden overwhelmed with so terrible a destruction as hath reduced them to that low and miserable condition under which they have ever since groaned; the all-wise providence of God seeming to continue them thus unto this day under the pride and persecution of Mahometan tyranny, for no other end but to be an example and warning unto others against the wickedness of separation and division."

Mahomet, the founder of the Moslem* or Mahometan reli-

* The following list of names and titles, some of which it will be convenient for us to use in the present article, and all of which frequently occur in accounts relating to the East, together with their etymological import, is taken from a highly celebrated work, "Bush's Life of Mahomet."

gion, was born at Mecca, a city of Arabia, A. D. 569, or, according to others, A. D. 571. His parents were themselves poor, but his connexions were rich and respectable, belonging to the tribe of the Ko-
reish, reckoned the most noble in all that part of Arabia.

MAHOMET, } From HAMAD; *praised, highly celebrated, illustrious,*
MOHAMMED, } *glorious.*
AHMED. }
MOSLEM, }
MUSSULMAN, } All from the same root, ASLAM; *signifying to yield up,*
ISLAM, } *dedicate, consecrate entirely to the service of religion.*
ISLAMISM. }

KORAN.—From KARA, *to read; the reading, legend, or that which ought to be read.*

CALIPH.—A successor; from the Hebrew CHALAPH; *to be changed, to succeed, to pass round in a revolution.*

SULTAN.—Originally from the Chaldaic SOLTAN; *signifying authority, dominion, principality.*

VIZIER.—An assistant.

HADJ.—*Pilgrimage*; HADJI; *one who makes the pilgrimage to Mecca.*

SARACEN.—Etymology doubtful; supposed to be from SARAK, *to steal; a plunderer, a robber.*

HEJRA, } *The Flight; applied emphatically to Mahomet's flight from*
or } *Mecca to Medina.*
HEJRA, }

MUFTI.—The principal head of the Mahometan religion, and the resolver of all doubtful points of the law.—An office of great dignity in the Turkish empire.

IMAM.—A kind of priest attached to the mosques, whose duty it is occasionally to expound a passage of the Koran. They, at the same time, usually follow some more lucrative employment.

MOOLLAH.—The Moollahs form what is called the Ulema, or body of doctors, in theology and jurisprudence, who are entrusted with the guardianship of the laws of the empire, and from whose number the Mufti is chosen.

EMIR.—Lineal descendants of the Prophet himself, distinguished by wearing turbans of deep sea-green, the colour peculiar to all the race of Mahomet. They have special immunities on the score of their descent, and one of them carries the green standard of the Prophet when the Grand Seignior appears in any public solemnity.

PASHA.—The title given to the provincial governors. A Pasha is to a province or pashalic, what the Sultan is to the empire, except that the judicial power is in the hands of the cadis, the provincial magistrates. The *tails* of a Pasha are the standards which he is allowed to carry; one of three tails is one of three standards, which number gives the power of life and death.

REIS EFFENDI.—This officer may be termed the High Chancellor of the Ottoman empire. He is at the head of a class of attorneys which at this time contains the best informed men of the nation.

SERAGLIO.—This word is derived from *Serai*, a term of Persian origin, signifying a *palace*. It is therefore improperly used as synonymous with *Harem*, the apartments of the women. The Seraglio is, in strictness of speech, the place where the court of the Grand

"The Moslem writers," says the author already quoted, "in order to represent the birth of their pretended prophet as Prodigies said equally marvellous with that of Moses or of Christ, the ancient messengers of God who preceded this event. ceded him, have reported a tissue of astonishing prodigies said to have occurred in connexion with that event. If the reader will receive their statements with the same implicit faith with which they seem to be delivered, he must acknowledge, that at the moment when the favoured infant was ushered into the world, a flood of light burst forth with him and illuminated every part of Syria; that the waters of the Lake Sawa were entirely dried up, so that a city was built upon its bottom; that an earthquake threw down fourteen towers of the king of Persia's palace; that the sacred fire of the Persians was extinguished, and all the evil spirits which had inhabited the moon and stars were expelled together from their celestial abodes, nor could they ever after animate idols or deliver oracles on earth. The child also, if we may trust to the same authorities, discovered the most wonderful presages. He was no sooner born than he fell prostrate, in a posture of humble adoration, praying devoutly to his Creator, and saying, 'God is great! There is no God but God, and I am his prophet!' By these and many other supernatural signs, equally astounding, is the prophet's nativity said to have been marked."

At the early age of two years, Mahomet lost his father, and four years after his mother. Being now a dependant orphan, Mahomet given he was received into the family of his grandfather, then in charge under whose guardianship he continued two to his uncle. years, when the venerable Abdol Motaleb himself was called to give up the ghost. On his dying bed, he summoned Abu Taleb, the eldest of his sons, whom he is said

Seignior is held; but it so happens that at Constantinople this building includes the imperial Harem within its walls.

CRESCENT.—The national ensign of the Turks, surmounting the domes and minarets attached to their mosques, as the Cross does the churches of the Roman Catholics in Christian countries. This peculiar and universal use of the Crescent is said to have owed its origin to the fact, that at the time of Mahomet's flight from Mecca to Medina *the moon was new*. Hence the half moon is commemorative of that event.

SUBLIME PORTE.—This title, which is frequently applied to the court, cabinet, or executive department of the Ottoman empire, is derived, as the words import, from a lofty arched gateway of splendid construction, forming the principal entrance to the Seraglio or palace. It is a phrase equivalent to "Court of St. James," "Court of St. Cloud," &c.

to have addressed as follows: "My dearest, best beloved son, to thy charge I leave Mahomet, the son of thine own brother, strictly recommended, whose natural father the Lord hath been pleased to take to himself, with the intent that this dear child should become ours by adoption; and much dearer ought he to be unto us than merely an adopted son. Receive him, therefore, at my dying hands, with the same sincere love and tender bowels with which I deliver him to thy care. Honour, love, and cherish him as much, or even more, than if he had sprung from thine own loins; for all the honour thou showest unto him shall be trebled unto thee. Be more than ordinarily careful in thy treatment towards him, for it will be repaid thee with interest. Give him the preference before thine own children, for he exceedeth them and all mankind in excellency and perfection. Take notice, that whensoever he calleth upon thee, thou answer him not as an infant, as his tender age may require, but as thou wouldst reply to the most aged and venerable person when he asketh thee any question. Sit not down to thy repasts of any sort soever, either alone or in company, till thy worthy nephew Mahomet is seated at the table before thee; neither do thou ever offer to taste of any kind of viands, or even to stretch forth thine hand towards the same, until he hath tasted thereof. If thou observest these my injunctions, thy goods shall always increase, and in nowise be diminished."*

Abu Taleb having received the above solemn charge, took the young prophet under his care, and instructed him in the business of a merchant. When he was about twelve or thirteen years of age, in order to perfect him in his employment, Abu Taleb took him with him into Syria, whither he found himself obliged to go on commercial affairs. Arriving at Bosra, an ancient city of Syria Damacena, he visited a monastery, where he found a Nestorian monk, named Felix, and surnamed *Boheira*, who treated them with great marks of distinction, and owned him as God's apostle. Another monk, called by the Christians, Sergius, entered into a confederacy with Boheira to propagate the new fanaticism, and lent a helping hand in composing the Koran. On Mahomet's first approach to Boheira, the monk observed, or said he observed, a sort of luminous or transparent cloud round his head, which preserved him from the heat of the solar rays; also, that the dry trees under which he sat were every where instantly covered with green leaves,

Educated as
a merchant.

* Morgan's Mahometanism Explained, vol. i. p. 50.

which served him for a shade—all certain signs that the prophetic dignity resided in him. He likewise discovered the seal of prophecy impressed between his shoulders, whilst he kissed the hinder part of his garment. Turning one day to the uncle, Abu Taleb, he said, “Depart with this child, and take great care that he does not fall into the hands of the Jews; for your nephew will one day become a very extraordinary person; he will perform great things by the appointment of God.” Abu Taleb hereupon immediately returned to Mecca, and gave an account to the Koreish of the discoveries that had been made.

In the mean time, Mahomet, as he advanced towards the years of puberty, grew extremely popular. He was the most handsome and the best made man of all the Arabs of his time; and he was not only famed for his beauty, but he likewise surpassed all his contemporaries in sagacity and good sense, so much so, indeed, as to acquire the name of *Al-Amin*, or the Faithful. This is the favourable portrait given us of him, at the age of fourteen, by some of the Moslem historians.

Mahomet made his first campaign when he was about twenty years of age, under his uncle Abu Taleb, who commanded the Koreish against the tribes Kenan and Hawazan. Of the cause of this war no traditionary account is on record; but, as it was carried on with great violence through the course of the four sacred months, it was termed the “impious war.” During these months it was held unlawful to wage war; the Arabs then taking off the heads of their spears, and ceasing from incursions and other hostilities. However, the Koreish were victorious in this war, which could not fail of rendering the people of their tribe still more devoted to Abu Taleb and the young Mahomet.

Mahomet continued in the employment of his uncle until he had attained his twenty-fifth year. About that time died

Enters the one of the chief men of the city, leaving a widow service of Ca- of the name of Cadijah; who, requiring a fac- dijah, whom tor to manage her stock, Mahomet entered he marries. her service, and traded for her some years, to Damascus and other places. In this service Mahomet conducted himself with so much propriety, that he not only merited the respect, but actually won the affections of his mistress, who was twelve years older than himself, he being then only twenty-eight years of age. Cadijah having married him, he became suddenly exalted to an equality with some of the richest men of the city.

Whether this unlooked for elevation had inspired Mahomet

with an extraordinary ambition, or whatever other motive prompted him, he soon began to manifest symptoms of wishing to appear a man of no common character, and as one divinely commissioned to reform the world by the introduction of a new system of religion, which should embrace whatever was excellent in the Pagan morality, and the Jewish and Christian dispensations. His commercial transactions in Egypt, Palestine, and Syria, having brought him acquainted with the numerous Christians and Jews residing in those countries, he soon discovered that the task of creating a new religion would not be very difficult. He proceeded, however, with much caution and care; and it was not till he had attained his thirty-eighth year, that he retired from the business of the world, repairing daily to a certain cave in the vicinity of Mecca, called the cave of Hera, for the ostensible purpose of spending his time in fasting, prayer, and meditation. Retires to the cave of Hera, where he matures his plan, A.D. 607.

Having, at length, matured his plan, he opened the subject of the supernatural visions, with which he had been favoured in the cave, to his wife Cadijah. At first she treated his visions as the dreams of a disturbed imagination, or as the delusions of the devil. Discloses it to Cadijah who becomes his convert. Mahomet, however, persisted in assuring her of the reality of these communications, and rising still higher in his demands upon her credulity, at length repeated a passage which he affirmed to be a part of a divine revelation, recently conveyed to him by the ministry of the angel Gabriel. The memorable night on which this visit was made by the heavenly messenger is called the "night of Al Kadr," or the night of the *divine decree*, and is greatly celebrated, as it was the same night on which the entire KORAN descended from the seventh to the lowest heaven, to be thence revealed by Gabriel in successive portions as occasion might require. The Koran has a whole chapter devoted to the commemoration of this event, entitled *Al Kadr*. It is as follows: "In the name of the most merciful God. Verily, we sent down the Koran in the night of Al Kadr. And what shall make thee understand how excellent the night of Al Kadr is? This night is better than a thousand months. Therein do the angels descend, and the spirit Gabriel also, by the permission of their Lord, with his decrees concerning every matter. It is peace until the rising of the morn."* On this favoured night, be-

* Koran, ch. xcvi.

tween the 23d and 24th of *Ramadan*, according to the prophet, the angel appeared to him, in glorious form, to communicate the happy tidings of his mission. The light issuing from his body, if the apostle-elect may be believed, was too dazzling for mortal eyes to behold; he fainted under the splendour; nor was it till Gabriel had assumed a human form, that he could venture to approach or look upon him. The angel then cried aloud, "O, MAHOMET, THOU ART THE APOSTLE OF GOD, AND I AM THE ANGEL GABRIEL!" "Read!" continued the angel; the prophet declared that he was unable to read. "Read!" Gabriel again exclaimed, "read, in the name of thy Lord, who hath created all things; who hath created man of congealed blood. Read, by thy most beneficent Lord, who hath taught the use of the pen; who teacheth man that which he knoweth not."^{*} The prophet, who professed hitherto to have been illiterate, then read the joyful tidings respecting his ministry on earth, when the angel, having accomplished his mission, majestically ascended to heaven, and disappeared from his view. When the story of this surprising interview with a celestial visitant was related to Cadijah in connexion with the passage repeated, her unbelief, as tradition avers, was wholly overcome, and not only so, but she was wrought by it into a kind of ecstasy, declaring, "By him in whose hands her soul was, that she trusted her husband would indeed one day become the prophet of his nation." In the height of her joy, she immediately imparted what she had heard to one Waraka, her cousin, who is supposed by some to have been in the secret, and who, being a Christian, had learned to write in the Hebrew character, and was tolerably well versed in the Jewish and Christian Scriptures. He unhesitatingly assented to her opinion respecting the divine designation of her husband, and even affirmed, that Mahomet was no other than the great prophet foretold by Moses, the son of Amram. This belief that both the prophet and his spurious religion were subjects of inspired prediction in the Old Testament scriptures, is studiously inculcated in the Koran. "Thy Lord is the mighty, the merciful. This book is certainly a revelation from the Lord of all creatures, which the faithful spirit (Gabriel) hath caused to descend upon thy heart, that thou mightest be a preacher to thy people in the perspicuous Arabic tongue; and it is borne witness to in the scriptures of former ages. Was it not a sign unto them that the wise men among the children of Israel knew it?"[†]

* Koran ch. xcvi.

† Ch. xxiii.

Having made a convert of his wife, his next object was to gain other proselytes. Among the first, who gave in his adhesion to the prophet, was his servant Zeid Ebn Hareth, whom he rewarded for his belief and attachment, by granting him his freedom. Ali, the son of Abu Taleb, Mahomet's cousin, was his next convert, but the impetuous youth, disregarding the other two as persons of comparatively little note, used to style himself the first of believers. His fourth and most important convert was Abubeker, a powerful citizen of Mecca, by whose influence a number of persons possessed of rank and authority were induced to profess the religion of Islam. These were Othman, Zobair, Saad, Abdorrahman, and Abu Obeidah, who afterwards became the principal leaders in his armies, and his main instruments in the establishment both of his imposture and of his empire. Four years were spent in the arduous task of winning over these nine individuals to the faith, some of whom were the principal men of the city, and who composed the whole party of his proselytes previously to his beginning to proclaim his mission in public. He was now forty-four years of age.

Hitherto the efforts of Mahomet had been confined to the conversion of a few individuals; but now the time having come for spreading his doctrines abroad, he directed Ali to prepare a generous entertainment, to which the sons and descendants of Abdol Mottaleb were invited. These having assembled, the prophet arose and addressed them as follows:—"I know no man in the whole peninsula of the Arabs who can propose any thing more excellent to his relations than what I now do to you; I offer you happiness both in this life and in that which is to come; God Almighty hath commanded me to call you unto him; who therefore among you will be my vizier (assistant) and will become my brother and vicegerent?" General astonishment kept the assembly silent; none offered to accept the proffered office, till the fiery Ali burst forth, and declared that he would be the brother and assistant of the prophet. "I," said he, "O prophet of God, will be thy vizier; I myself will beat out the teeth, pull out the eyes, rip open the bellies, and cut off the legs, of all those who shall dare to oppose thee." The prophet caught the young proselyte in his arms, exclaiming, "This is my brother, my deputy, my successor; show yourselves obedient unto him." At this apparently extravagant command, the whole company burst into laughter, telling Abu

Gains other proselytes; but at first with difficulty.

Proclaims his doctrines to his family, friends, and connexions, who turn them in to ridicule.

Taleb that he must now pay obedience and submission to his own son ! As words were multiplied, surprise began to give way to indignation, the serious pretensions of the prophet were seriously resented, and in the issue the assembly broke up in confusion, affording the ardent apostle but slender prospects of success among his kinsmen.

Notwithstanding his above ill success with his tribe, he was so far from being discouraged, that he continued to preach to

the people, who still heard him with some public to the tience, till he came to upbraid them with the citizens' of idolatry, obstinacy, and perverseness, not only Mecca. of themselves, but of their fathers. This so highly provoked them, that they openly declared themselves his enemies, some few only excepted, who were converted to Mahometanism. Nor could he have escaped their resentment, had he not been protected by Abu Taleb, his uncle, who was very active in his favour. However, the chief of the Koreish, and even many of his own relations, warmly solicited him to desert his nephew; but all their endeavours proving ineffectual, they at length threatened Abu Taleb with an open rupture, if he did not prevail on Mahomet to desist. Abu Taleb was so far moved at this threat, that he earnestly dissuaded his nephew from pursuing the affair any further; representing the great danger he and his friends must otherwise run; but Mahomet was not to be intimidated, telling his uncle plainly, "that if they set the sun against him on his right hand, and the moon on his left, he would not relinquish his enterprise." Abu Taleb, therefore, finding him so firmly resolved to proceed, used no further arguments, but promised to stand by him against all his enemies: so that notwithstanding the people of his tribe came to a determination to expel both him and his followers, he found a powerful support in his uncle against all their machinations.

In the eighth year of his pretended mission, his party growing formidable at Mecca, the city passed a decree, by which they forbade any more to join themselves with him. This, however, did not much affect him, while his uncle Abu Taleb lived to protect him: but he dying two years after, and the government of the city then falling into the hands of his enemies, a fresh opposition was renewed against him, and a stop soon put to the further progress of his designs at Mecca. Mahomet, therefore, seeing all his hopes in a manner crushed here, began to think of settling elsewhere; and as his uncle Abbas lived for the most part at Tayif, a town sixty miles dis-

tant from Mecca, towards the east, and was a man of power and interest, he took a journey thither, under his protection, in order to propagate his imposture there. But, after a month's stay, finding himself unable to gain even one proselyte, he retired to Mecca, with a resolution to wait for such further advantages as time and opportunity might offer. His wife Cadijah being now dead, after living with him two and twenty years, he took two other wives in her stead, Ayesha, the daughter of Abubeker, and Lewda, the daughter of Zama; adding a while after to them a third, named Haphsa, the daughter of Omar; and by thus making himself son-in-law to three of the principal men of his party, he strengthened his interest considerably. Ayesha is said to have been then only six years old; on which account the completion of that marriage was deferred, though not for many years, the eastern women being very early marriageable.

In the twelfth year of his mission is placed the mesra, that is, his famous night-journey from Mecca to Jerusalem, and thence to heaven; of which he tells us, in the seventeenth chapter of the Koran: for the people calling on him for miracles to prove his mission, and finding himself unable, or being unwilling, to feign any, to solve the matter, he invented this story of his journey to heaven. The story, as related in the Koran, and believed by the Mahometants, is this: At night, as he lay in his bed with his best beloved wife Ayesha, he heard a knocking at his door; upon which, arising, he found there the angel Gabriel, with seventy pair of wings, expanded from his sides, whiter than snow, and clearer than crystal, and the beast Alborak standing by him; which, they say, is the beast on which the prophets used to ride, when they were carried from one place to another, upon the execution of any divine command. Mahomet describes it to be a beast as white as milk, and of a mixed nature, between an ass and a mule, and also of a size between both; but of such extraordinary swiftness as to equal even lightning itself.

Makes a famous night-journey from Mecca to Jerusalem, in company with the angel Gabriel, on a beast called Alborak.

As soon as Mahomet appeared at the door, the angel Gabriel kindly embraced him, saluted him in the name of God, and told him, that he was sent to bring him unto God into heaven; where he should see strange mysteries, which were not lawful to be seen by any other man. He prayed him then to get upon Alborak; but the beast having lain idle and unemployed from the time of Christ to Mahomet, was grown so mettlesome and skittish, that he would not stand still for Mahomet

to mount him, till at length he was forced to bribe him to it, by promising him a place in Paradise. When he was firmly seated on him, the angel Gabriel led the way with the bridle of the beast in his hand, and carried the prophet from Mecca to Jerusalem in the twinkling of an eye. On his coming thither, all the departed prophets and saints appeared at the gate of the temple to salute him; and thence attending him into the chief oratory, desired him to pray for them, and then withdrew. After this, Mahomet went out of the temple with the angel Gabriel, and found a ladder of light ready fixed for them, which they immediately ascended, leaving Alborak tied to a rock till their return.

On their arrival at the first heaven, the angel knocked at the gate; and informing the porter who he was, and that he had brought Mahomet, the friend of God, he was immediately admitted. This first heaven, he tells us, was all of pure silver; from whence he saw the stars hanging from it by chains of gold, each as big as mount Noho, near Mecca, in Arabia. On his entrance he met a decrepid old man, who it seems was our first father Adam; and, as he advanced, he saw a multitude of angels in all manner of shapes; in the shape of birds, beasts, and men. We must not forget to observe, that Adam had the piety immediately to embrace the prophet, giving God thanks for so great a son; and then recommended himself to his prayers. From this first heaven, he tells us, that he ascended into the second, which was at the distance of five hundred years' journey above it: and this he makes to be the distance of every one of the seven heavens, each above the other. Here the gates being opened to him as before, at his entrance he met Noah, who, rejoicing much at the sight of him, recommended himself to his prayers. This heaven was all of pure gold, and there were twice as many angels in it as in the former; for he tells us that the number of angels in every heaven increased as he advanced. From this second heaven he ascended into the third, which was made of precious stones, where he met Abraham, who also recommended himself to his prayers; Joseph, the son of Jacob, did the same in the fourth heaven, which was all of emerald; Moses in the fifth, which was all of adamant; and John the Baptist in the sixth, which was all of carbuncle: whence he ascended into the seventh, which was all of divine light, and here he found Jesus Christ. However, it is observed, that here he alters his style; for he does not say that Jesus Christ recommended himself to his prayers, but that he recommended himself to the prayers of Jesus Christ.

The angel Gabriel, having brought him thus far, told him that he was not permitted to attend him any further; and therefore directed him to ascend the rest of the way to the throne of God by himself. This he performed with great difficulty, passing through rough and dangerous places, till he came where he heard a voice, saying unto him, "O Mahomet, salute thy Creator;" whence ascending higher, he came into a place where he saw a vast expansion of light, so exceedingly bright, that his eyes could not bear it. This, it seems, was the habitation of the Almighty, where his throne was placed; on the right side of which, he says, God's name and his own were written in these Arabic words: "La ellah ellallah Mahomet reful ollah;" that is, "THERE IS NO GOD BUT GOD, AND MAHOMET IS HIS PROPHET," which is at this day the creed of the Mahometans. Being approached to the divine presence, he tells us, that God entered into a familiar converse with him, revealed to him many hidden mysteries, made him understand the whole of his law, gave him many things in charge concerning his instructing men in the knowledge of it; and, in conclusion, bestowed on him several privileges above the rest of mankind. He then returned, and found the angel Gabriel waiting for him in the place where he left him. The angel led him back along the seven heavens, through which he had brought him; and set him again upon the beast Alborak, which stood tied to the rock near Jerusalem. Then he conducted him back to Mecca, in the same manner as he brought him thence; and all this within the space of the tenth part of one night.

On his relating this story to the people the next morning after he pretended the thing to have happened, it was received by them with a general outcry; and the imposture was never in a greater danger of being totally blasted, than by this ridiculous fable. But, how ridiculous soever the story may appear, Mahomet had a further design in it, than barely telling such a miraculous adventure of himself to the people. Hitherto he had only given them the Koran, which was his written law; and had pretended to be nothing more than barely the messenger of God, in publishing it, as it was delivered to him by the angel Gabriel. But now, learning from his friend Abdallah, that the Jews, besides the written law dictated by God himself, had also another law, called the oral law, given with it, as they pretend, to Moses himself, while in the mount; and understanding that this law, which had its whole foundation in the sayings and dictates of Moses, was in as

great veneration with them as the other; he had a mind for the future to advance his authority to the same pitch, and to make all his sayings and dictates pass for oracles among the Mussulmen, as those which were pretended to proceed from Moses did among the Jews; and for this end chiefly it was, that he invented this story of his journey to heaven.

The story, however, whatever advantages he might and did gain by it when his religion became more firmly established, was deemed at first so grossly ridiculous, that it Retires to Medina. occasioned the revolt of many of his disciples, and made his stay at Mecca no longer practicable. But what he lost at Mecca he gained at Medina, then called Yathreb, a city lying 270 miles north-west from Mecca; which was inhabited, the one part by Jews, and the other by heretical Christians. These two parties did not agree at all; and feuds and factions rose at length so high among them, that one party, exasperated against the other, went over to Mahomet. Thus we are told, that in the thirteenth year of his mission, there came to him from thence seventy-three men and two women. Twelve of these he retained awhile with him at Mecca, to instruct them in his new religion; then sent them back to Yathreb, as his twelve apostles, there to propagate it in that town. In this they laboured abundantly, and with such success, that, in a short time, they drew over the greatest part of the inhabitants; of which Mahomet receiving an account, resolved to go thither immediately, finding it unsafe to continue any longer at Mecca.

On the 12th day of the month which the Arabs call the Former Rabia, that is, on the 24th of our September, he came

The Hejira to Yathreb, and was received with great acclamation. Era of Flight, A. D. 622. first lodged in the house of Chalid Abu Job, one of the chief men of the party, till he had built

a house for himself. This he immediately undertook, and erected a mosque at the same time for the exercise of his religion; and having thus settled himself in this town, he continued there ever after, to the time of his death. From this flight of Mahomet, the Hejira, which is the æra of the Mahometans, begins its computation: Hejira, in the Arabic language, signifying flight. It was first appointed by Omar, the third emperor of the Saracens, and takes its beginning from the 16th of July, in the year 622. Indeed the day that Mahomet left Mecca was on the first of the Former Rabia; and he came to Medina on the 12th of the same month, that is, on the 24th of our September; but the Hejira begins two months

before, from the first of Moharram: for that being the first month of the Arabian year, Omar would make no alteration as to that, but anticipated the computation fifty-nine days, that he might commence his æra from the beginning of that year, in which the flight of the impostor happened, from which it took its name.*

From the time Mahomet entered Medina, he found himself in reality a monarch, at the head of an army devoted to his person, obedient to his will, and blind believers in his holy office. Finding himself in a condi- Battle of Beder. tion not only to defend himself against the insults

of his enemies, but even to attack them, he began to send out parties to make reprisals on the Koreish. One of these, consisting of no more than nine men, intercepted and plundered a caravan belonging to that tribe. This small advantage animated the Moslems, and induced the Prophet to think he should gain as much reputation by his arms as by his revelations; but what mostly established his affairs at this juncture, and was the foundation on which he built all his succeeding greatness, was the gaining of the battle of Beder, a well on the confines of Arabia, which was fought in the second year of the Hejira, and is so famous in the Mahometan history. This victory was an invincible proof to the Arabians of the truth of Mahometanism. Having been informed by his spies, that the Koreish had a large quantity of valuable merchandise, carried on the backs of 1000 camels, coming from Syria, and escorted only by thirty or forty men, he resolved to advance at the head of a small detachment of his troops, to intercept it. But Abu Sofian, the conductor of the caravan, having notice of his designs and motions, immediately despatched a courier to Mecca, requesting his countrymen to send him speedy succours, upon which all the principal men of the city marched to defend the caravan with a body of 950 men. Mahomet had no sooner received advice of this, than he drew together all his forces, which amounted to no more than 313 men, with which he advanced against the enemy. In the mean time, he took care to leave a proper garrison in Medina, to defend it in case of any disaster. Before the beginning of the battle, feigning himself in a trance, he pretended that God had promised him certain victory. After which, throwing a handful of dust towards the enemy, he said, *May the faces of them be confounded!* and then, exhorting his men to behave valiantly, he commanded them to fall upon the Koreish. They charged

* Nightingale's "All Religions."

them with such bravery, that they soon put them to flight, having killed seventy of the principal of them on the spot, and taken as many prisoners, with the loss of only fourteen men. In imitation of Moses, Mahomet sat in a tent, and prayed for those that fought, for Gabriel would not permit him to engage. The Prophet pretends in the Koran, that not he, but God, by the ministry of his angel, threw the gravel towards the unbelievers; that the Moslem troops seemed to the infidels to be twice as numerous as themselves, which greatly discouraged them; and that God had sent down to their assistance first 1000, and afterwards 3000 angels, led by Gabriel, mounted on his horse Haizum; and, according to the Koran, these celestial auxiliaries did all the execution, though Mahomet's troops could not perceive them. The battle was fought on a Friday, and on the 17th of the month Ramadan.

At the commencement of the second year of the Hejira, Mahomet altered the *Kebla* for his disciples, or the part of the world to which the Mahometans are to turn their faces in prayer. At first, Mahomet declared

Mahomet alters the *Kebla*. it to be perfectly indifferent; afterwards, when he fled to Medina, he directed his followers to turn towards the temple of Jerusalem, (probably, to ingratiate himself with the Jews,) which continued to be their *Kebla*, for seventeen or eighteen months; but, either finding the Jews too intractable, or despairing otherwise to gain the Pagan Arabs, who could not forget their respect to the temple of Mecca, he ordered that prayers, for the future, should be towards the east; that is, towards the Caaba, or temple of Mecca. This change occasioned many to fall from him, taking offence at his inconstancy. Again, he ordered that the *Faithful* should be called to prayers with a loud voice from the top of the Mosques, whereas before he was, out of policy, inclined to the Jewish horn, and had actually made use of rattles, as Christians did. He likewise ordained the grand fast of Ramadan, in which month the Koran came from heaven, and made several regulations about alms, things lawful and unlawful, policy, &c.; all which were either inspired or confirmed by miracles.

It does not belong to the plan of this work to give an account of the military expeditions, by which, in successive years, the prophet succeeded in establishing his religion in almost every part of his own country. One or two expeditions, however, are too important in the Prophet's history to be passed over without notice.

In the sixth year of the Hejira, with fourteen hundred men, he undertook a pilgrimage to the holy temple of Mecca. But

the inhabitants of that city, being jealous of his intentions, despatched a messenger to the Prophet, while he halted several days at Hodeibiya, saying, that if he entered the city, it must be at the point of the sword. Upon this, the Prophet summoned his men to attack the city; but, before this could be effected, the Meccans sent an ambassador to him to confer upon terms of peace. Finding it to be for their mutual advantage to enter into a treaty, one was formed, which stipulated that the Prophet and his followers should have free access to the city and temple, after one year, whenever they pleased, during the space of ten years, provided they came unarmed, as befitted pilgrims, and remained not more than three days at a time.

Concludes a treaty with the Meccans for ten years.

During the same year the Prophet led his army against Chaibar, a city inhabited by Arab Jews, who offering him manly resistance, he laid siege to the place and carried it by storm. A great miracle is here said to have been performed by Ali, surnamed "The Lion of God." A ponderous gate, which eight men afterwards tried in vain to lift from the ground, was torn by him from its hinges, and used as a buckler during the assault! Mahomet, on entering the town, took up his quarters at the house of Hareth, one of the principal inhabitants, and here met with a reception which eventually cost him his life. Zeinab, the daughter of Hareth, while preparing a meal for the conqueror and his attendants, inserted a quantity of poison into a shoulder of mutton which was served up at the table. Bashar, a companion of Mahomet, had scarcely begun to eat of it, before he was seized with convulsions, and died upon the spot. Mahomet, by spitting out the greatest part of what he had taken into his mouth, escaped immediate death, but the effects of the fatal drug had entered his system, and, resisting every effort of medicine to expel or counteract it, in somewhat more than three years afterward it brought him to his end. If, as the reporters of Mahomet's miracles affirm, the shoulder of mutton informed the Prophet of its being poisoned, it is certain the intelligence came too late. The seeds of death were henceforth effectually sown in his constitution; and his own decline ever after kept pace with his growing power. When Zeinab was asked, how she had dared to perpetrate a deed of such unparalleled enormity, she is said to have answered, "that she was determined to make trial of his powers as a Prophet: if he were a true Prophet," said she, "he would know that the meat was

Attacks Chaibar, a city of Arab Jews, where he is poisoned.

poisoned; if not, it would be a favour to the world to rid it of such a tyrant." It is not agreed among the Mahometan writers what was the punishment inflicted upon this second Jael, or whether she suffered any. Some affirm that she was pardoned; others, that she was put to death.*

In the seventh year of the Hejira, the year stipulated in the before-mentioned treaty, being elapsed, Mahomet and his followers made the *Al-Kadha*, or his *visit of consummation* or *accomplishment*, and pilgrimage of Meccà. At the distance of six miles from that town, they all took an oath to perform religiously all the ceremonies and rites prescribed in that visit. Being come nearer, they left their arms and baggage, and entered the holy city in triumph, devoutly kissed and embraced the black stone of the Caaba, and went seven times round the temple. They performed the three first rounds by running, jumping, and shaking their shoulders, to show their vigour after the fatigue of the journey; the other four, by walking gravely, not to over-tire themselves, and this custom is kept up to this day. Then prayer was proclaimed, and the prophet, mounted on a camel, ran seven times between two hills, on which were to be seen, at that time, two idols of the Koreish. The Mussulmen were shocked at it; but their scruples were quieted by a passage of the Koran sent from heaven, in which God declared that those two hills were a memorial of him, and that the pilgrims who should visit them ought not to be looked upon as guilty of any sin. This same custom is still in use amongst the Arabians, who pretend that it is as ancient as their patriarch Ishmael, and look upon it as part of the religious worship practised by Abraham. The whole concluded with a sacrifice of seventy camels, and the Mussulmen shaved themselves.

The following year, Mahomet, accusing the Meccans of a violation of the treaty, summoned an army of ten thousand men, with a design to make himself master of the city. As he advanced towards it, he found all in consternation, increased his army with those who daily flocked to him; and by force, threats, or persuasion, he brought over to his party many proselytes of note, who were likely to procure the conversion of others. Then he attacked the Koreish, not like an apostle, but as a conqueror, and gave the signal, saying, "This is a day of slaughter, in which, if requisite, the most sacred place of refuge may be violated." His orders were obeyed; they entered Mecca sword in hand, and killed all the Koreishites

* Bush's Life of Mahomet.

they could find; but Mahomet pretended this barbarous execution was made against his intentions.

The apostle made his public entry next morning at sunrise, repeating aloud, with an affected humility, the chapter of the Koran called *Victory*, which came down from heaven at Hodaiba; he went directly to the Caaba, and without alighting from his camel, devoutly performed the seven rounds, and touched the *black stone* with his staff; then he dismounted, went in, and pulled down all the statues, amongst others, that of Ibrahim or Abraham, in the hands of which were the arrows or rods used by Arabian idolaters in their divinations by casting lots. On entering, he often repeated the words, *God is great, &c.*; and turning to every side of the temple, he said prayers with various inclinations of the body, and fixed the *Kebla*; the 360 idols which were round the Caaba, and that which was on the top, underwent, according to Arabian writers, the same fate in a wonderful manner; Mahomet only touched them with his cane, saying, *Truth is come, let falsehood disappear, lying is mere vanity*, and down they fell. He then went in and preached in a pulpit, made for that purpose, which the Khalifs, who succeeded him, used likewise. The seven rounds were now repeated, after which he went to the well of *Zem-Zem*, made a stop at Ibrahim's footstep, drank large draughts of the sacred water, and washed himself; the Mussulmen then followed his example. This well had been long reputed to have the virtues of restoring health, of strengthening the memory, and of blotting out sin.

Mahomet now made a speech to the inhabitants of Mecca, on the favour which God bestowed upon them, by his means, in freeing them from idolatry; he also let them know that they were become his slaves, but he restored to them that liberty, which by the right of conquest they had lost.

Many wonders and heavenly oracles are said to have accompanied this ceremony; the apostle disposed of the several offices of the temple, renewed the oath to the believers, and they mutually took an oath to bind themselves to him.

In the tenth year of the Hejira, Mahomet made his famous pilgrimage to Mecca, called the pilgrimage of *Valediction*. He was attended, on this occasion, by 90,000 men, or, as some say, 114,000, or, as others will have it, a still greater number. Nor is this to

Pilgrimage
of valediction.

be wondered at, when it is considered that the people came in vast crowds from all parts of Arabia, of which he was now absolute master, to accompany him in this peregrination. He took all his wives, enclosed in their pavilions on the backs of

camels, with him; together with an infinite number of camels, intended for victims, which were crowned with garlands and ribands.

It is well known, that the pilgrimage to Mecca is looked upon by the Mussulmen to be of such importance, that whoever is able to undertake it, and does not perform it once, at least, in his lifetime, is reputed an infidel. This custom was complied with long before Mahomet, and the Arabians say it is as ancient as the patriarchial age. Mahomet had visited the Caaba twice before, as we have related, but in this year he vowed and performed it in a most magnificent manner. During the journey he often said prayers with the usual reverences. He entered the holy city at the same place as when he took it, and the religious ceremonies were the same, in respect to going seven times round the Caaba and kissing the black stone twice. From a neighbouring hill he now pronounced this form of the profession of the unity of God:—*God is great; there is no God but he only; he has no companion; the power of governing belongs to him; praise be given to him alone; he is powerful above all; he only is strong.* The sun being nearly setting, he instructed the people, and taught them the rites to be observed in the pilgrimage, and stood till the close of the day. He then said vespers, or evening prayers, lay on the ground, slept till the break of day, and said morning prayers a few minutes before the rising of the sun. He now ran through the valley of Mohasser to that of Mina, in which are pebble stones; he took up seven of them, and threw them one by one against Satan, repeating each time the said form of unity. At the place of sacrifice he made a discourse, to let the people know the ceremonies of it. He then killed with his own hands, and offered sixty-three camels; that is, as many as he was years old. Ali killed thirty-seven to make up the hundred. Then these words, which are the ratification of the Koran, were heard from heaven:—*Wo be this day to those who have denied your religion. I have this day brought it to its perfection, and have fulfilled my grace upon you. It is my good will and pleasure, that ISLAMISM be henceforth your religion.* The Mussulmen doctors say, that the word *religion* comprehends all the decisions, statutes, and precepts of the law; and that, since that time, no positive nor negative command has come down from heaven. This being completed, Mahomet shaved his head, the right side first, then the left, threw away the hair, of which Khaled, one of his officers, tied part to his turban, and was powerfully helped by this precious relic in all the battles in which he was afterwards

engaged. The whole concluded with a holy repast, in which they ate what remained of the sacrificed camels; the prophet then said a prayer, drank some Zem-Zem water, and once more made the seven rounds. Within a mile of Mecca is mount Araa, a place much respected by the Mussulmen; because, according to their tradition, Adam and Eve, after their sin, were condemned to a separation for one hundred and twenty years, which having expired, they met by God's appointment on the top of this hill, and complied with the so long interrupted conjugal duty. In memory of which, the place is dedicated to penance and retirement; of both which duties Mahomet acquitted himself, prayed for his own sins, and for those of his followers, and recommended the same acts of devotion in the Koran.

We are now come to the last period of Mahomet's life; the last embassy he received was from the Arabians of Yemen, in the month of Moharram, the eleventh year of the Hejira; and the last expedition which he ordered, was in the following month of Safar. Two days after he fell into a sickness, accompanied by a most violent pain in the head; these were occasioned by the poison which he had taken, three years before, at Chaibar; and which poison, at certain intervals, had greatly disordered him, ever since the reduction of that place. Having now called his wives together, he entertained them, chiefly the most beloved of them, and his daughter Fatima, with such discourses as showed his fanatical enthusiasm, or which were the result of the senseless fancies of a brain distempered by the violence of the fever. But to be able to speak more sensibly to his followers, he ordered seven large skins, or measures full of cold water, to be thrown upon him, in order to recall his wandering spirits. Then, being carried to the mosque and set in the pulpit, he recited aloud the before-mentioned form of unity; begged God's pardon; proffered to make a public reparation for all the injuries he might have done to any body; and actually paid to a particular person the principal and interest of a small sum of money which he pretended was due to him; saying at the same time, *It is much more easy to bear shame in this world than in the next.* He then said the prayers for noon; and likewise prayed for the dead, *according to the agreement and communion which subsist between the living and the dead.* These and other devout actions he performed as long as he had any strength left.

We shall only mention the Mahometan fables concerning Gabriel's being often sent by God to inquire how the prophet did, his introduction of Azrael, the angel of death, to the

apostle just before his dissolution, having first obtained his leave, and the pious discourses of all three. Gabriel assured him he could not take his life without his express permission : nay, he gave him, as they tell us, his option of life or death ; which the Moslem doctors look upon as one of the most singular and illustrious prerogatives of the prophet. Whereupon Mahomet, continue these authors, having chosen death, and desired the aforesaid angel, Azrael, to execute his office, he was immediately thrown into agonies, that terminated with his life. Thus Mahomet died at noon, on a Monday, the twelfth of the month, called Rabbi the First, in the eleventh year of the Hejira ; being about sixty-three years old. Historians take notice that he was born on a Monday ; began his apostolical functions on a Monday ; fled from Mecca on a Monday ; made his entry into Medina on a Monday ; took Mecca on a Monday ; and at last died on a Monday. His death was thought so extraordinary, that it was called *an assumption*. Some said, *He is not dead, he is only taken up into heaven, like JESUS in an ecstasy*. Others said, *He is gone to his Lord, as Moses, who left his people for forty days and came again*. Their disputes ran high respecting his death ; but Abu-Beker, who succeeded him, put an end to those quarrels by giving a final sentence, that Mahomet was dead, like all other apostles and prophets who had gone before him. This decision being unanimously received, his body was washed and perfumed, especially those parts which touched the ground at the adoration paid to God, viz. the feet, the hands, the knees, and the forehead. The ablution called *Wodhu*, was also performed on the face, the arms, the palms of the hands, and soles of the feet. Lastly, the whole body was embalmed by Ali, whom Mahomet had ordered to do it ; and those who helped him were hoodwinked, because the prophet had foretold that blindness would be the fate of any other person, who should see him naked. Strange wonders and sweet odours accompanied this ceremony ; at least so say the Mussulmen writers. Ali dipped some cloths in the water, with which he had been washed ; they imbibed the virtues of it, and Ali, who kept them and wore them, became a partaker of those virtues.

Prayers were now said for him and his family by all the faithful in order. Gagnier asserts, that his body was not hung up in an iron chest, as is generally reported.

In relation to the place where the prophet's remains were to be deposited, there happened some disputes among his followers. The *Mohajerins* insisted upon his being buried at Mecca, the place of his nativity ; and the *Ansars*, at Medina,

the place of his residence during the last ten years of his life. Others were for transporting him to Jerusalem, and erecting a monument for him there amongst the sepulchres of the prophets. But his successor, Abu-Beker, decided the whole affair at once, by declaring that a prophet ought to be interred in the place where he died; and that he had heard Mahomet, in his lifetime, own himself to be of this opinion. Whereupon the body was buried in a grave dug under the bed on which he died, in the apartment of Ayesha, his best beloved wife, at Medina, where it remains to this day, in a magnificent building, covered with a cupola, and adjoining to the east side of the great temple, which is built in the midst of the city.

The sorrow and doleful complaints of the Mussulmen on this occasion were no doubt very great; but we shall omit the enthusiastic description of them given by Arabian historians, to give the true character of this prophet. As to his person and outward appearance, he was of a middle stature, neither endowed with extraordinary beauty, nor in any way deformed. The Arabians, indeed, assert, that the prophetic light, which descended lineally from Adam to him, made his face as bright as the sun. Nor must we omit what they say of his spittle, viz. that it was so sweet, and of so good a taste, that children might have been fed with it. A wen which he had between his shoulders, and which disappeared at his death, was, they say, the *seal of prophecy*; to which they add, that flies and other insects were never troublesome to him, and that, consequently, his skin was always soft and shining.

Those authors are likewise as extravagant in their description of his mind. We may easily believe, however, that he was far more ingenious than others of his countrymen, upon whom he prevailed by his subtle devices, natural eloquence, and remarkable affability: the latter quality was, however, sometimes assumed, not without a mixture of severity. He affected likewise to be thought a great lover of justice and truth. He was so liberal to the poor as to be called their father, never refused to give alms to them, and maintained constantly forty at his own charge. It is said, too, that though he was master of an immense estate, yet he often had nothing left but what was absolutely necessary for the support of his family. He was very sparing in his diet, and ate only some dates, and drank nothing but water for several months of the year. The Arabians, likewise, say of him, that he took his meals standing, or in an uneasy situation, with his servant; made his own shoes, his clothes; swept the house, and even prepared the victuals for his men! So far the austerity of his life seemed

to imitate the severity of the anchorets and solitaries of Egypt, and the neighbourhood of Arabia. This mortification was no doubt practised in order to dazzle the common people, and inspire them with the highest opinion of, and veneration for, his sanctity.

But with all these hardships, he indulged himself in a seraglio of twenty-one, and even twenty-five wives; women, it seems, to use his own expression, *rejoiced his sight, and raised his fervour at his prayers*. Five of his wives died before him; from six he was divorced, and ten remained in a state of widowhood after the prophet's death.

Mahomet had four sons and four daughters by his first wife, and none by any of his other wives or concubines, except Mary, the Copt. All his sons died in their infancy. Such was the life, such the death, and such the character of Mahomet. That the desire of satisfying his sensuality was one of the principal motives of his undertaking, seems indisputably clear, from the great number of wives and concubines he maintained, as well as from the wicked and unjustifiable methods he was obliged to make use of, in order to obtain possession of some of them.

Before the death of Mahomet, he had become master of all Arabia; had extended his conquest to the borders of the Greek and Persian empires; had rendered his name formidable to those once mighty kingdoms; had tried his arms against the disciplined troops of the former, and defeated them in a desperate encounter at Muta. His throne was now firmly established; and an impulse given to the Arabian nations, which induced them to invade, and enabled them to conquer, a large portion of the globe. India, Persia, the Greek empire, the whole of Asia Minor, Egypt, Barbary, and Spain, were eventually reduced by their victorious arms. Mahomet himself did not indeed live to see such mighty conquests achieved, but he commenced the train which resulted in this wide-spread dominion; and before his death, had established over the whole of Arabia, and some parts of Asia, the religion which he had devised.

Mahometan
conquests.

CHAPTER II.

RELIGIOUS TENETS CEREMONIES, AND CUSTOMS OF THE
MAHOMETANS.

ALL Mussulmen look upon the pilgrimage to the tomb of Mahomet, as one of the chief duties of their religion. The Arabian doctors say that Mahomet enjoined it, and it is well known that superstition lays a great stress on such ceremonies. Whoever undertakes to perform it, must often, even upon the road, turn himself towards Medina to pray; as soon as he sees the tops of the trees about the town, he ought to renew his devotion, and repeat without intermission the appointed form of prayers, to beg of God that this visit to the *holy sanctuary of the prophet* may be acceptable, and may deliver him from hell. Before he enters the city, he is enjoined to wash himself, to use perfumes, put on his best apparel, and to give alms. Having entered, he says a prayer, and another when he comes into the mosque; this latter is for Mahomet and his family. The pilgrim then goes towards the tomb, stays some time at the place where the Prophet prayed, and also at some other places, accordingly as his devotion suggests to him. Being at last arrived near the holy place, he first prostrates himself on the ground, pays his adoration to God, gives him thanks for having conducted him safely thither; then standing up, with his face turned towards Mecca, he prays for the prophet and his two successors, Abu-Beker and Omar; he does not, whilst praying, even lean against the wall which encloses the monument, as that would be considered indecent, and a profanation. Gagnier says, that "The pilgrim looks on the ground, and there fixing his eyes, salutes the Prophet, with the utmost veneration and respect; at the same time withdrawing his thoughts and affections from all worldly concerns, as becomes one who is in the presence of God and his apostle," &c. On the Friday following, he goes to a burying-ground, called *Al-Baki*, where several of the companions of Mahomet lie interred, and visits the tombs of the chief ladies and others of his family, servants, and successors; as well as of Fatima, his daughter, Ibrahim, his son, and the Mussulmen martyrs, &c. Then, he washes himself in, and drinks some of the water of the well called *Aris*, into which the prophet had spitten; and performs several prostrations at other mosques, oratories, and wells in Medina, Pilgrimage to the tomb of Mahomet.

&c. Mahomet himself said, that *one prayer in his own mosque is better than a thousand any where else*; and that he would intercede for all those who die at Medina.

The Caaba is a stone edifice in the temple of Mecca, which has been revered with superior sanctity by the Arabians,

The Caaba from the remotest antiquity; and to which every Temple of ry Mahometan is required by the Koran to direct himself in prayer.

Among the variety of fabulous traditions which have been propagated by the followers of Mahomet, concerning the origin of this building, we find it asserted, that its existence is coeval with our first parents, and that it was built by Adam, after his expulsion from Paradise, from a representation of the celestial temple, which the Almighty let down from heaven in curtains of light, and placed in Mecca, perpendicular under the original. To this the patriarch was commanded to turn his face when he prayed, and to compass it by way of devotion, as the angels did the heavenly one. After the destruction of this temple by the deluge, it was rebuilt by Abraham and his son Ishmael on the same spot, and after the same model, according to directions, which they received by revelation; and since that time, it has continued to be the object of veneration to Ishmael's descendants. Whatever discredit we may give to these, and other ravings of the Moslem impostor concerning the Caaba, its high antiquity cannot be disputed; and the most probable account is, that it was built and used for religious purposes, by some of the early patriarchs; and after the introduction of idols, it came to be appropriated to the reception of the Pagan divinities. Diodorus Siculus, in his description of the coast of the Red Sea, mentions this temple as being, in his time, held in great veneration by all the Arabians; and Pocoke informs us, that the linen or silken veil, with which it is covered, was first offered by a pious king of the Hamyarites, seven hundred years before the time of Mahomet. It had been frequently repaired, and was rebuilt a few years after the birth of this prophet, by the tribe of Koreish, who had acquired the possession of it either by fraud or violence from the Khozaites. The Caaba then contained three hundred and sixty images of men, lions, eagles, &c., the objects of idolatrous worship, which were all destroyed by Mahomet, after the taking of Mecca, when it was purified and adorned, and consecrated to the service of Islam. It received several reparations after his death, and was rebuilt by one of his successors, with some alterations, in the form in which it now stands.

As no European is permitted to visit Mecca, the only

knowledge we have of the present appearance of the Caaba, is derived from the description and draughts of the Mahometans, who indeed speak of it in terms of high admiration. It would appear, however, even from their designs, that it is an awkward and shapeless building. It consists of a sort of square tower, 24 cubits by 23, and 27 high, covered on the top with rich black damask, bordered with an embroidery of gold, which was formerly renewed every year by the Mahometan Caliphs, afterwards by the Sultans of Egypt, and which is now annually provided by the Ottoman Porte. The floor is raised six feet from the ground; and a door and window admit the light. Its double roof is supported by three octagonal pillars of aloes wood, between which are suspended several silver lamps; and the gutters on the top are made of pure gold. At a small distance from this tower, on the east side, is the *station* of Abraham, where is a stone upon which the patriarch is supposed to have stood when he built the Caaba, and which, they pretend, still bears the traces of his footsteps. It is inclosed in an iron chest; and here the sect of Al Shafei meet for religious purposes. On the north of the Caaba is the *white stone* within a semicircular enclosure, 50 cubits long, which is said to be the sepulchre of Ishmael, and which receives the rain-water that falls from the Caaba by a golden spout. This stone is of considerable antiquity, and was even held in great veneration by the Pagan Arabs. Towards the southeast is the well Zem Zem, remarkable for the excellence and medicinal quality of its waters, as well as its miraculous origin. It is affirmed to be the same spring which, miraculously bursting out of the ground, supplied Ishmael and his mother Hagar, when overcome with thirst in the wilderness of Beersheba; and is celebrated by the Mahometans not only for curing many bodily diseases, but also, if taken copiously, for healing all spiritual disorders, and procuring an absolute remission of sins. The well is protected by a dome or cupola, and its water is drank with much devotion by the pilgrims, and conveyed in bottles to the most distant quarters of the Mahometan dominions. But the most singular relic, and which is regarded with extreme veneration, is the famous black stone, which the Mahometans pretend was one of the precious stones of Paradise, and was brought down from heaven by the angel Gabriel. According to the received tradition, derived from Mahomet himself, it was originally of such a bright white colour as to dazzle the eyes at the distance of four days journey, but that it wept so long and so abundantly for the sins of mankind, that it became at length

opaque, and at last absolutely black. When the Carmathians took Mecca, they pillaged the Caaba, and carried off the black stone in triumph to their capital. The Meccans made every effort to recover it, both by entreaties and the offer of 5000 pieces of gold, but without effect. The Carmathians, however, after having kept it 22 years, sent it back of their own accord. It is now set in silver, and fixed in the south east corner of the Caaba, looking towards Basra, about three feet and a half from the ground. It is called by the Mahometans "the right hand of God," and is kissed by the pilgrims with great devotion.

The Caaba is almost surrounded with a circular enclosure of pillars, connected at the top by bars of silver, and towards the bottom by a low balustrade. Without this enclosure, on the south, north, and west, are three oratories, where three of the Mahometan sects assemble to perform their devotion. The whole is enclosed at a considerable distance by a square colonnade, or great piazza, covered with small cupolas, and consisting of 448 pillars, from which hang numerous lamps, and 38 gates; and from each corner rises a minaret or steeple, adorned with a gilded spire and crescent. This enclosure was built by the Caliph Omar, to prevent the court of the Caaba from being encroached upon by private buildings. It was at first merely a low wall, but has since been raised by the liberality of succeeding princes to its present magnificent state. The whole structure of the Caaba is in a peculiar manner styled *Al Masjad Al Haram*, "the sacred or inviolable place;" which appellation, however, is sometimes extended to the whole territory of Mecca.

According to the command of Mahomet, every Mussulman must, once in his life, visit the Caaba, and perform the customary acts of devotion in the sacred places. But could the prophet have foreseen into what distant regions his religion was to be introduced by the arms of his followers, he would soon have perceived the absurdity of such an injunction. Few in comparison with the immense numbers who have embraced the doctrines of Islam, can be supposed able to discharge this duty; and we may presume, that it is only such as are more than ordinarily devout that are ever induced to visit the Caaba from religious motives. Many pilgrims, however, resort to the city of Mecca, but commercial ideas mingle with those of devotion, and the arcades of the temple are often filled with the richest merchandise from every quarter of the world. This duty may be discharged by proxy, but the pilgrim, in this character, can act only for one person at one time; and to pre-

vent all imposture, he must carry back with him a certificate from the Imam of Mecca, of his having actually performed all the devotional exercises or ceremonies appointed by the law, in the name of his principal.*

In connexion with the foregoing account of the temple of Mecca, we shall here give an account of the pilgrimage to Mecca, which, as stated above, Mahomet enjoined upon all his faithful followers to perform at least once in his life. As soon as the devotees ^{Pilgrimage to Mecca.} arrive at the consecrated district of Mecca, they perform a general ablution with water and sand; repeat a prayer, after stripping off their garments; and put on the sacred habit of colourless woollen cloth, with sandals, which only defend the soles of their feet. They are now devoted to spiritual meditation, and must not even remove any vermin from their bodies. After reaching the city of Mecca, they encircle the Caaba seven times, like their pagan predecessors; repeat certain prayers; drink copiously of the well Zem Zem; and kiss with all their ardour the sacred black stone. On the first and second of the three days, (the period for which the Caaba is open every six weeks,) the men and women offer their devotions alternately; and on the last day the sheriff of Mecca, the chiefs of the tribes, and the illustrious strangers present in the city, proceed to wash and sweep the temple. The foul water is caught and drunk by the multitude; the besoms of palm-leaves are treasured up as precious relics; and the black cloth which surrounds the door and bottom of the building, is cut off and divided among the pilgrims. The next part of the duty is to visit the mountain of Arafal, for the offering up of various prayers at certain times and places; and thence to Mina, where every individual must cast a few small stones (always an uneven number) at the devil's house there, to show their detestation of the owner. A sacrifice is finally made of a goat, camel, or cow, in commemoration of Abraham's willingness to offer up his son; and after spending three days in this valley, the pilgrims return to Mecca previous to their departure to their respective countries. As they are all allowed to trade on this pilgrimage, the holy city is crowded, on these occasions, with such merchandise of every country as is most easy of carriage, and best adapted for sale; and, in former times, the fair of Mecca was accounted the greatest on the face of the earth.

The word Koran comes from the Hebrew word *cara*, to

* New Edinburgh Encyp. Art. Caaba.

read; *Al* signifies *the*, and *koran*, *reading*; so the Jews call the Bible *Micra*. Other Arabian doctors say it is derived from *caara*, to gather; because having been given by portions, it was afterwards put into one. The Mahometans have as great a veneration for the Koran as Christians profess for the Bible. Both these words equally signify *the Book*, by way of preference to any other; that is, *the Book of Books*.

One hundred and fourteen chapters, some longer, some shorter, make up the whole book; these are called by the French *surates*, from the Arabic word *sua*, in the plural, *sowar*, which signifies *order*, or *a series*, or *a file*; and answers to what the Jews call *seder*, of which they reckon fifty-three in the Pentateuch. Each chapter of the Koran has a particular denomination, taken from the subject of which it treats, or from some person mentioned in it; but more frequently from the first word, which those who have put it in order, have thought worthy of notice, though it occurs sometimes only toward the end of the chapter.

The Koran is also divided into sixty equal parts, each of which is sub-divided into four, in imitation of the Jews. "These sixty portions," says Herbelot, "are a kind of public service performed in the mosques, on various occasions, by persons hired for that purpose."

The Mussulmen know no bounds to the praises which they bestow upon this book:—it is written with the greatest elegance of style, in the purest Arabic dialect used by the Koreish, but intermixed now and then with other dialects. This was not an effect of neglect, nor of a lazy disposition, but in order to give the discourse a greater and more lively strength of expression, or to make it more harmonious. Indeed, all those who are versed in the Arabic language, unanimously agree, that the Koran cannot be the production of an idle and lazy author. Although it be written in prose, the energy and harmony of its style must have cost the writer greater labour and industry, and raises the work to the sublime character of poetry: yet the difficulty of finding out certain witty turns, often interrupts the thread of the discourse, and, consequently, renders it obscure, which has obliged Mahomet not to be concise and short, but to use frequent repetitions. His figures are bold in the oriental taste, his expression strong and pithy; the turn of his phrases, in imitation of the prophets of the Old Testament, is full of interruptions; and it appears throughout the whole, that all the art and eloquence of which Mahomet was master, have been employed in the most proper places. The

mention of God, and the description of his attributes, are always lofty and majestic: oracles are pronounced with ■ raised and elevated style, proportioned to the dignity of the subject. In short, the Arabians are so charmed with the beauties of the Koran, that in all their writings they endeavour to copy this perfect original; and without a competent knowledge of this one book, all others become unintelligible.

It is a remark of Sir William Jones that the Koran shines with a borrowed light, since most of its beauties are taken from our Scriptures. Of the truth of this remark every reader would be satisfied who should compare the two. He would find for example many of the historical details of the Christian scripture in the Koran; such as the creation of the world, the fall of Adam, the deluge, the deliverance of Noah and his family in the ark, the call of Abraham, the stories of Isaac and Ishmael, &c. &c. At the same time he would find these subjects interspersed with extravagant fables, and monstrous perversions of truth. He would also perceive that the Koran is indebted to the Scriptures for not a few of its sentiments, but that their very imagery and phraseology have in hundreds of instances been adopted. The following may serve as an example of the correspondence to which we have alluded:—

BIBLE.

Take heed that ye do not your alms before men to be seen of them; otherwise ye have no reward of your Father which is in heaven.

Jesus of Nazareth, a man approved of God among you by miracles and wonders, and signs which God did by him.

Thou shalt give life for life, tooth for tooth, foot for foot, burning for burning, wound for wound, stripe for stripe.

But their minds were blinded: for until this day remaineth the same veil untaken away in the reading of the

KORAN.

Make not your alms of none effect, by reproaching or mischief; as he that layeth out what he hath, to appear unto men to give alms.

We gave unto Jesus, the son of Mary, manifest signs, and strengthened him with the Holy Spirit.

We have therein commanded them that they should give life for life, and eye for eye, and nose for nose, and ear for ear, and tooth for tooth, and that wounds should be punished by retaliation.

There is of them who hearkeneth unto thee when thou readest the Koran; but we have cast veils over their

The Koran greatly indebted to the Christian Scriptures.

BIBLE.

Old Testament. But even unto this day when Moses is read, the veil is upon their heart.

They said therefore unto him, What sign shewest thou then, that we may see and believe thee?

In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth. And God said, Let there be light, and there was light.

And when he (Moses) was full forty years old, it came into his heart to visit his brethren, the children of Israel.

And in the latter time of their kingdom, when the transgressors are come to the full, a king of fierce countenance, and understanding dark sentences, shall stand up.

I will open my mouth in parables; I will utter things which have been kept secret from the foundation of the world.

And the seventh angel sounded; and there were great voices in heaven, saying, The kingdoms of this world are become the kingdoms of our Lord and of his Christ.

For behold, I created new heavens and a new earth. We look for new heavens and a new earth. I will cause you to come up out of your graves. And every man shall receive his own reward according to his own labour.

KORAN.

hearts, that they should not understand it, and deafness in their ears.

The infidels say, Unless some sign be sent down unto him from his Lord, we will not believe.

It is he who hath created the heavens and the earth. And whenever he sayeth unto a thing, Be, it is.

I have already dwelt among you to the age of forty years before I received it (the Koran.) Do ye therefore not understand?

According to thy dream shall thy Lord choose thee and teach thee the interpretation of dark sayings.

We taught him the interpretation of dark sayings, but the greater part of men do not understand.

O Lord, thou hast given me a part of the kingdom and hast taught me the interpretation of dark sayings.

And his will be the kingdom on the day whereon the trumpet shall be sounded.

The day will come when the earth shall be changed into another earth, and the heavens into other heavens; and men shall come forth from their graves to appear before the only, the mighty God. That God may reward every soul according to what it shall have deserved.





Eating the Passover by the Portuguese Jews. p. 95.



Inner Court of the Temple of Mecca. p. 124.

The second form about Mahomet, the first was about God himself. 12. The words of it, which are to be repeated. 13. The observing punctually each of these in their order.

II. The *Sonna* requires four things more. 1. That the people be invited to prayers. 2. That this invitation be repeated with a form not much different. 3. The first confession about God. 4. The words or form of prayer of that confession.

III. Five dispositions are necessary for prayer. 1. The body must be entirely clean. 2. It must be decently clad. 3. In a clean place, so as to contract no uncleanness. 4. At the exact time appointed. 5. Not forgetting the *Kebla*, which is turned towards Mecca.

IV. There are also five sorts of prayers to be said daily. 1. At noon with four inclinations of the body. 2. In the afternoon with four also. 3. In the evening with three. 4. In the night with four. 5. In the morning with two only. In all seventeen for the whole day. Travellers may without sin reduce them to eleven.

Some alms are left to the free choice of every individual, others are prescribed by the law. We shall now treat of the latter. Alms.

I. Alms are given out of five sorts of goods:—1. Of cattle, camels, oxen, sheep. 2. Of money. 3. Of corn. 4. Of other fruits of the earth. 5. Of goods in trade.

II. Six conditions are required in the giver:—1. He must be a Mussulman, that is, a true believer. 2. A freeman. 3. The lawful possessor of what he is to give away; for it is an injustice, and not charity, to give what does not belong to us. 4. His patrimony must be increased. As riches increase, alms should increase at two and a half per cent. Those who have not twenty pieces of gold, nor two hundred in silver, nor five camels, nor thirty oxen, nor thirty sheep, are not obliged to give alms. 5. He must have been in possession about a year, at least eleven months, without pawning it. 6. He must not give his working cattle, but one of those which are at grass, because alms are to be given from that which is not necessary.

III. The same conditions are required for alms of money, corn, other fruits of the earth, &c.; only about corn and fruits it is to be observed, 1. That they must grow from our labour, as sowing, &c. 2. They must have been laid up in our store-rooms or barns. 3. There must be a convenient quantity left, so that the giver may not be reduced to want.

IV. But we must chiefly take notice, that in the aforesaid alms given by those who are easy in their circumstances; and

in other alms, (if that name can be given to a tax annually levied by a capitation at the end of the fast of Ramadan,) the first and best principle ought to be the intention of giving this or that alms as a debt which we are obliged to pay.

The chief fast of the Mahometans is that of Ramadan. After it, is kept the feast of the Great Beiram. The little Beiram is kept on the tenth of the month Dilhazja, in memory of Abraham's sacrifice.

Fasts.

I. Three things are required in the person who fasts, to make it acceptable to God. 1. He must be a Mussulman. 2. At an age of ripeness; fourteen in men, twelve in women. 3. In their right senses.

II. The conditions of the fast are five. 1. An intention of the heart to please God. 2. To eat nothing in the day, from sunrise to sunset. 3. To drink nothing of any sort. 4. To have no commerce with women, not even by kisses. 5. Not to throw up what has been eaten, which supposes both that the stomach is good, and that no excess is committed, or at least nothing taken which may give a disgust.

In performing this devout ceremony, five things are commanded by Divine institution. 1. The intention and religious vow of going to Mecca. 2. Spending a day on Mount Arafat, which is done on the ninth day of the month. 3. Shaving the head in the Valley of Mina. They throw seven stones one after the other in the Valley of Mina, after which the men (not the women) offer sheep, goats, oxen, or camels, in sacrifice; then shave and pare their nails. The hair and parings are buried in that valley. 4. To go seven times round the Caaba. 5. To run seven times between Safa and Merva, two holy places, one hundred and eighty cubits distant from each other. At first they walk slow, then run faster between two pillars; then walk again, looking on all sides as if seeking something lost. This is to represent the anxiety of Hagar, when she endeavoured to find water in the desert for her son Ishmael. All these ceremonies were in use long before Mahomet, who made them an essential part of his religion, both in order to draw in the superstitious inhabitants, and to make this law seem venerable for its antiquity.

We shall now enter upon the manners and customs of civil life, or which have some relation to the religion of Mahomet.

Precepts, Duties &c. enjoined by the Koran.

We must in the first place take notice, that the Koran contains some negative precepts, concerning such things which become evil or scandalous only by the abuse of them. Such as the forbid-

ding of wine, and other intoxicating liquors, which seems enforced in several passages of the Koran; for instance, in the second chapter, in which Mahomet says expressly, "that the sin committed by drinking wine, is much greater than the advantage reaped from the use of it; and in the fifth chapter, he reckons wine amongst the "abominations which are the works of Satan." Some have pretended that the excess only is forbidden, but the general opinion is, that it is not lawful to drink any of those liquors, and that whoever drinks even the smallest quantity commits a sin. Those who have performed the pilgrimage of Mecca are the most scrupulous in this point, and will neither drink any wine nor make it, buy nor sell it, nor the implements to make it, in order to live by the profits of such a traffic. Yet all the Mahometans are not so exact in observing this law; and when reproached with the breach of it by Christians, they have recourse to recrimination, and upbraid us with our violation of the Gospel precepts.

Some Mussulmen have doubted whether coffee be not comprehended under the general denomination of intoxicating liquors; because, they say, it disturbs the imagination of those who use it. It is, however, undoubted, that coffee, though now universally allowed in Mahometan countries, has been heretofore forbidden, and is now used by mere toleration, not by religious permission; nevertheless, very few abstain from the use of it. The scrupulous Mahometans are still more averse from tobacco, both because it has the same effect as wine and brandy, and also on account of a pretended prophecy of Mahomet, that "in the latter days some shall call themselves Mussulmen, without being really such, who will suck in through a pipe, and blow out the smoke of a plant called tobacco." This qualification of false brethren could not but render tobacco odious to scrupulous people; yet the constant practice is to introduce coffee and tobacco, without which no entertainment is thought completely polite in the east; and the Persians in particular say, that tobacco is to coffee, what salt is to meat.

The same rigorists condemn also the use of opium, or heng, or treacle, although nothing be more common. The Koran does not mention tobacco, nor opium, nor heng, but as they produce the same effects as wine, they are apt to cause quarrels, neglect of duty, several irregularities, and shameful disorders; all these reasons prove the necessity of abstaining from all such liquors or drugs. Upon the same account, the Jews, from whom, and from the ancient Arabians, the Magi, and the Christians, Mahomet has borrowed many of his reli-

gious precepts, did not allow the priests to drink wine when they were to officiate in their turn.

The second and fifth chapters of the Koran forbid also games of hazard, under the general denomination of *Al Mai-*

Games of *sair*, which strictly means the art of divination by Hazard for- arrows. We must observe that this kind of witch-bidden. craft is very like *Rhabdomancy*, that is, the art of divination by rods, and is mentioned in the Prophecy of Ezekiel, chap. 21, verse 26, which is an evident proof that both the Arabians and their neighbours undertook no affair of moment without consulting their arrows. Mahomet forbade all these customs, with an intent, as he said, to take away all superstition; but others have been substituted for them.

The Mahometans were likewise prohibited, under the name of superstition, to remove all occasions of quarrels and cheating, which generally accompany games of hazard. However, in this instance, the civil law enforces the authority of Mahomet and of the Koran, insomuch that games of hazard are in disrepute, and the testimony of those who are addicted to them, is of no force in courts of justice; at least it is pretended, that such witnesses may be rejected.

The majority of the Mahometan doctors allow the game of chess, as depending wholly upon industry and skill; but they forbid playing too long at it, or for money, or

Chess al- laying wagers about it, or at the hours appointed lowed. for prayer. These restrictions are observed

more exactly by the Turks, than by the Persians or Moguls. Some are of opinion, that Mahomet forbids chess under the name of images, because amongst the Arabians, as with us, most of the pieces represent men, elephants, horses, camels, &c.; others think that Mahomet put that restraint only upon the pawns, which in Turkey are made quite plain. The Mahometans, however, generally abstain from gaming more easily than from wine, and chiefly in Persia, where drunkenness prevails as much as in some European countries.

This subject naturally leads us to give an account of the diversions and exercises used by the Mahometans: but we shall Puppet-shows, only mention those which have some relation to Jugglers, &c. religion, according to the good or bad use made allowed.

of them, or which even are admitted as a part of their religious ceremonies. Amongst these are puppet-shows, with which the Turks entertain their guests in private after their meals, notwithstanding Mahomet's prohibition of images. This diversion is publicly exhibited in the Ramadan when the hour of fasting is past; for then they allow themselves as

much sensual pleasure as the Christians do in the Carnival, or the Heathens during the solemnity of their Saturnalia, the two last days of which were spent in puppet-shows.

They have also jugglers, quacks, and public dancers of both sexes, called *tchinguis*; and although the Turks, Persians, and Moguls, look upon dancers by profession as people of loose lives and morals, yet it must be owned, that those disorders are not always the consequence of dancing, and several nations have made use of it in their religious worship. Nothing, therefore, but the abuse has rendered dancing contemptible amongst the Mahometans, who nevertheless admit it in their religion, as appears by the turnings of their dervises, which the majority of travellers represent as a solemn act of worship performed every Tuesday and Friday. The superior of these dervises preaches a sermon on some text of the Koran, which is followed by some prayers out of the same book, sung by all of them together; then, having made a low bow to the superior, they begin to dance, or turn about, whilst some play on the flute, or other instruments. This ceremony was invented by one Mewlana, whom the dervises honour as a great saint; and we are assured by Ricault, that this man, whom he calls *Mevelava*, by a miracle, turned fourteen days together without resting or taking any nourishment, whilst another dervise, named Hamze, his companion, played on the flute; after which he fell into an ecstasy, and received wonderful revelations, and was very instrumental in founding the order of dervises. The flute is, they think, a sacred instrument of music, sanctified by Jacob and other holy shepherds of the Old Testament, who made use of it; yet the rigorists condemn both the dance and instruments of music, as contrary to religion.

As to the distinction of meats, we shall only add, that the Koran in several places forbids blood, and the flesh of beasts, which have been either offered to idols, or which have died naturally; and some Mussulmen are so cautious in that point, that unless the butcher pronounces the prayer *Bismill'ah*, or "In the name of God," &c. whilst he kills any beast, they do not think it lawful to eat of it.

Usury is also condemned in the second chapter of the Koran, and ranked amongst the most enormous sins. Mahomet does not allow it, as the Jews do, even towards infidels. Yet there are some Mussulmen, who are usurers and extortioners, and give what interpretation they think fit, in order to elude the precepts of the Koran, as too many Christians do with respect to

Usury condemned.

the Gospel. The same chapter which forbids usury, enjoins mercy and forbearance with a debtor who is not able to pay, without depriving himself of the necessary means for the subsistence of himself and family; in which case, Mahomet orders his followers not to begin any prosecutions for such debts, but to reckon them as an alms given to the debtor. He may have borrowed this from the law of Moses and of CHRIST, and the dictates of humanity may also have inspired him to make that law, both to avoid merciless and extortionate lawsuits, and to prevent his subjects from being ruined. Thus we see the Romans, who lived before the Gospel, and were but little, if at all, acquainted with the law of Moses, had such an abhorrence of usury, that they obliged usurers to restore four times as much as they had thus unjustly gained; whereas thieves were only condemned to pay double what they had stolen. Prudence and equity convinced them, that a usurer was more pernicious to society than a thief.

The same sentiments of humanity, and the common good of society, prompted Mahomet to abolish the barbarous custom of the Koreishites and other Arabians, of burying girls alive; which they pretended was in order to prevent the shame which they might cause to their parents by an evil conduct, and the slavery and miseries to which they were exposed. Moreover, they had no regard for women, but upon account of propagation and pleasure, and looked on their birth as a misfortune, their death a happiness; therefore, when a woman was in labour, she was led to a grave, and if delivered of a female child, it was thrown in and buried.

The ceremony of marriage is in high esteem amongst the Mahometans; yet it is not celebrated in the presence of the priests, nor is it considered an act of religion, as with the Jews and Christians, and formerly with the Romans and Grecians. The Cadi, or civil judge, gives it a sanction; "as to an act purely relating to society, which is not valid without his presence. The husband acknowledges that he has obliged himself to marry such a woman, to give her such a dowry, and to dispose of her at pleasure in case of divorce." The woman is not present at this acknowledgment; but the father, or some of the relations, assist at it; which being done, the husband takes possession of his wife, who is brought to him veiled under a canopy, accompanied by friends, relations, slaves, and music.

Ricault says, that "wives are not jealous of concubines, if they be not deprived of the right which they claim, and the law gives them, to be admitted once a week to their husbands'



Procession of a Turkish Wedding. p. 145.



Turkish Funeral. p. 152.



beds. On failure of this, they may demand it on the Thursday night of the following week, and even go to law with their husbands if they do not grant it. If any be so bashful as to neglect this public way of obtaining justice, they endeavour to find out some other way of recompensing themselves for their loss."

The majority of travellers affirm, that the Turks have a kind of half-marriage, called *Cabin*; which consists in taking a wife for a time limited. This agreement is made before the judge, who, in the presence of the contracting parties, writes it down, and the stipulated sum of money is paid to the woman when the time is elapsed.

The Mahometans are allowed to make use of their female slaves; and here we must take notice, first, that Mussulmen may marry women of any religion, the tenets of which are written; and secondly, that all the children, whether by wives or slaves, equally inherit their father's property, if by will or otherwise the father has declared them free; in default of which, the children of a slave still remain slaves to the eldest son of the family.

Thevenot says, "That the Turks never marry their relations, unless they are more distant than eight generations, and that the Mahometan women study to embellish themselves by all the arts in use amongst our European ladies; false hair, paint, rich clothes, often to the ruin of their husbands and families.

The Koran inveighs strongly against adultery, and orders that a husband, who accuses his wife of that crime, and does not prove it, shall be bastinadoed. When there are no proofs nor witnesses, the husband swears five times, that what he alleges is true, and to the last oath adds a curse, wishing he may be cursed by God and men if he lies: on the other side, the woman is believed, if she also swears five times, and adds to the last oath a prayer, desiring God to destroy her, if her husband speaks truth. However, if the adultery be fully proved, the husband has her life in his power, and if revengeful, puts her in a sack full of stones, and drowns her. But then, Tournefort adds, that "they are so cautious in their amours, that few die in the water; and if the husband spares their lives, they are happier than before; because she is obliged to marry her gallant, who, if a Christian, must embrace Mahometanism or die." As to the adulterer, he is often condemned to ride an ass, with his face towards the tail, which he holds as a bridle. He is crowned with tripe and guts, and has a neckcloth of the same, and at last is bastinadoed upon the reins and the soles of his feet.

We must not omit the curious particularities related by Ricault, when the princesses of the Ottoman empire are married to some great and powerful man; this pretended honour is the effect of the jealousy which the emperors of Turkey conceive of their power, and is generally the forerunner of their ruin. "When the Grand Seignior is apprehensive of the great power of a bashaw, he makes him marry one of his sisters, or relations, under pretence of conferring upon him a greater honour; but instead of being greater, he becomes the most abject slave to the pride and tyranny of a woman, who treats him like a footman: yet he dares not refuse, nor seem to undervalue this token of his master's favour: he must resolve to devote himself wholly to her, and renounce all his other wives or slaves, who might lay claim to any part of his love: if he has already an amiable wife, and children by her, who engages his most tender affection, he is obliged to turn her out of his house, and also every other person, who might be displeasing to this Sultana, although unknown to him. If, before the wedding, she sends to ask of him money, jewels, or rich furs, he must send them to her with an expression of pleasure and thanks; this is called *Aghirlic*. He is moreover obliged to settle upon her what dowry the match-makers are pleased to appoint. This dowry or *cabin* being stipulated before a judge, he is led by a black eunuch to the Sultana's chamber, to give her thanks. When he enters the room, she draws her dagger, and haughtily demands, who made him so bold as to approach her? He answers with a profound respect, and shows to her the *Emmery Padschah*, or the Grand Seignior's order for the wedding. She then rises, receives him with mildness, and allows him to entertain her with more familiarity; then a eunuch takes his slippers, and places them at the door, as a token of his meeting with a kind reception. A few minutes after, the Bashaw makes a low bow down to the ground, and drawing back, makes a speech, to testify how happy he thinks himself for the honour she intends to confer upon him. This being over, he stands silent in a humble posture, with his hands across his breast, till she orders him to bring her some water. He obeys readily, and kneeling, presents to her a water-cup prepared for that ceremony: she raises a red veil embroidered with gold and silver flowers, which covered her face, and drinks: her women immediately bring in a low table on which are set two roasted pigeons, and some candied sugar on a plate, or a plate of sweetmeats. The gallant desires her to eat, which she refuses till he has made her some rich present. This calms her anger, overcomes her modesty; she sits down

to the table, graciously receives from his hand the leg of a pigeon, and having eaten some, puts into his mouth a piece of sugar, then rises, and goes back to her place: all the company withdraw, and leave the newly married couple alone for the space of an hour, that he may freely converse with her. Then his friends come with instruments of music playing; they invite him to come to the ante-chamber, where he spends the night with them in drinking and diversion: the Sultana does the same in her room with her ladies. At last, the princess being tired, goes at break of day to lie down in a bed exquisitely rich, well perfumed, and every way fit for the ceremony. A eunuch gives notice to her husband by a sign, and introduces him without noise into the bed-chamber. He puts off his upper garments, kneels for some time at the feet of the bed, then growing bolder, raises softly the covering, softly touches and kisses the feet of the princess, and slides into her arms. In the morning, his friends come again to conduct him to the bath, and his spouse presents him with all the linen requisite in that place. After this, they live more familiarly within doors; but in public, she is more reserved, and shows her superiority. She wears a changiar or dagger by her side, and requires of him so many presents, that sooner or later she empties his coffers."

Mahomet, in order to hinder his followers from putting their wives away too often, expressly forbids the taking of them again, after a third repudiation, unless they have been married and repudiated by another man. Divorces.

This, they say, has had so good an effect, that very few Mahometans are divorced from their wives, and the number of those who take them again is still less.

The third divorce is called *Ouch-talac*; which Bespier explains *three*, or *the third* separation; of which the Turks have three different sorts made before the Cadi, and registered by him. By the first, the husband and wife are parted from bed and board; she receiving from him a maintenance. The second is a total separation of body and goods; the husband must then give her the stipulated dowry; after which, she has no claim to his person nor goods, and may marry another, three lunar months after the divorce, for fear she should be with child; in which case, she cannot marry, and may even remain in her husband's house, and be maintained at his cost till she be delivered. The *Ouch-talac* is the most solemn divorce, but not practised by the Persians.

The women do not enjoy the same privilege of parting with their husbands, unless for want of necessities, as rice, coffee,

wood, money to go to the bagnio, flax to spin their clothes, which the law supposes they are industrious enough to make.

Children come next under our consideration, as being the fruits of matrimony. They become members of Mahometanism by circumcision, which they derive from the Ishmaelites, who, as well as the Jews, are descended from Abraham, to whom God gave a particular command for the performance of it.

The Turks do not circumcise their children till they are full seven years old, and when they are beyond that age, they do it when they think fit. Chardin assures us, that the Persians perform this ceremony when the boys are five or six years old; but the Mahometan doctors say, it should be done according to the rules, at thirteen, because Ishmael was circumcised at that age; or at nine, because children begin then to discern good from evil. However, this is not performed in the same manner as by the Jews; it is done by a surgeon, not by a priest: God ordained it as a sign or seal of the justice obtained by faith.

The day of circumcision is a day of joy for all the relations of the child. He is carried on horseback, with kettle-drums and tabors sounding, dressed in his best attire, followed by his school companions, who pronounce aloud some passages of the Koran. Being brought home, he is directed to repeat the profession of faith, "There is no other God but God," &c., holding up one finger, and then he is circumcised.

When a grown-up person embraces Mahometanism, he is led on horseback, carrying in his left hand a dart, with the point turned towards his heart, to testify that he will rather suffer himself to be pierced through the heart, than renounce his new religion; but Tournefort says, they only make their new converts lift up a finger, probably out of contempt for those persons who leave the religion in which they were brought up.

Boys have a name given them on the day of their circumcision, but this custom is also subject to some variations. Tournefort says, the father gives what name he pleases to his child as soon as it is born, holding him in his arms, and lifting him up to offer it to God; after which, he puts salt into his mouth, and gives him a name with a blessing. Superstition creeps in; for in Persia, several names taken out of the Koran are huddled together, one of which, drawn by an infant, is given to the child.

Some Mahometans do not look upon circumcision as an indispensable act of religion, nor is it necessary to salvation;

whilst others think that this ceremony confers inward faith, and that God will not hear the prayers of an uncircumcised man. Some Mussulmen are of opinion that the circumcision of the father has an influence on his children, and that it contributes to their salvation.

We shall conclude this subject with a few remarks on the birth and education of children. When the children of princes and great lords are born, the moment of their birth is kept very secret, in order to avoid all charms and witchcraft, and to prevent astrologers from casting their nativity, and foretelling sinister events. The Mahometans, like other nations, admit of adopted children; and it is very common amongst the Turks. The manner of doing it, is to make the adopted person put on, and go through the shirt of the person who adopts him. This adoption is called *Akhrat*. Next to the chief points of religion, beauty and strength of body are in the greatest estimation with Mussulmen, who are persuaded a deformed body can but cover a base soul. The Indians even pretend that such bodies are prisons, into which souls are cast for great crimes committed in a former life.

The mourning for the dead begins with such loud cries and lamentations made by the women, that the death soon becomes published to the most distant neighbours. The custom of making loud cries and noisy lamentations for departed friends, of rolling in the dust, Funeral ceremonies. or covering one's self with ashes, &c. is very ancient in the east; nor is it much altered amongst the modern inhabitants of those countries. Thevenot informs us, that these Turkish women give over crying when there are no witnesses of their tears, being hired for that purpose, which lasts several days, and is renewed at the end of the year. Previously to the burial, the corpse is washed and shaved, frankincense is burnt about it, to expel the devil and other evil spirits, which, as the Mahometans and several other nations believe, rove about the dead, no less than about the living. This ceremony being over, the body is put into a burial-dress without a seam, that it may, as they pretend, kneel with less difficulty, when it is to be examined in the grave. The coffin is covered with a pall, preceded by imans, who pray, and followed by the relations and friends of the deceased, with the women who lament and shed tears. At the grave the corpse is taken out of the coffin, and put into the ground. The women stay there to cry.

The difference betwixt the graves of the Turks and of the Christians in those countries, consists in a board, which the

Turks put over the corpse slanting, so that one end of it touches the bottom of the grave, and the other leans against the top of the grave. But neither the Turks nor the Christians of the east bury their dead in coffins. Moreover, the Turks place a stone at the head of the corpse, for the convenience of the angels who are to examine the deceased. This civility which is paid to them will, as the Mahometans superstitiously believe, make them more indulgent.

The palls are different, and the tombs variously adorned, according to the condition and state of life of the deceased, soldiers or churchmen, rich or poor. The burying-places of the Mahometans are by the high-road, "in order," as Thevenot says, "to put travellers in mind to offer their prayers to God for the dead, and to obtain his blessing." For which reason, those who build a bridge, or some other public fabric, from an act of charity, are likewise buried in or near them. The large stones which are erected in the church-yards are so numerous, that a town might be built with them. After the funeral, the relations and friends of the deceased come several days successively to pray on his tomb, beseeching God to rescue him from the torments inflicted by the black angels; and calling the deceased by his name, they say to him, *Fear not, but answer them bravely*. On the Friday following, victuals and drink are brought to the grave, of which, whoever passes by may freely partake."

The Persian Mahometans have a strange notion, that the angel who presides at the birth of children, mixes some earth with the matter of which they are made, and introduces it into the mother's womb, at the instant of the conception; whence they conclude, that every one must endeavour to die in the same place from which the angel took that earth. They have a more rational custom grounded on principles of humanity, which is, that whoever meets a funeral must accompany the corpse, and even help to carry it, if their help be wanted.

The same Persians have retained in their mournings the old ceremony of tearing their clothes to testify their grief; and what is much more commendable, they give alms during seven days. But, for the satisfaction of our readers, we shall present them with an abstract of the account, which Chardin gives of the customs of the Persian Mahometans, from the death of the sick person, to the end of the mourning for him.

"At the first signs of an approaching death, small lamps are lighted on the terrace or flat roof of the house; this puts the neighbours and passengers in mind to pray for the sick person. *Mollas*. or priests, are sent for; they preach repent-

ance to him, mentioning all the sins of which he may have been guilty. He answers *tube*, that is, *I repent*, to each sin that is mentioned; and when he has lost his speech, the Koran is read by his bed-side, till he gives up the ghost. This is soon notified to the whole neighbourhood by excessive outcries and lamentations. The relations and other friends rend their clothes from the neck to the girdle, tear off their hair, scratch their faces, strike their breasts, and manifest every sign of sorrow and despair; but the women exceed all bounds of moderation in their grief, not without a mixture of long complaints, tender and moving speeches, addressed to the deceased.

"The cazy or judge, is now acquainted with the death. They inform his porter, *Such a one is dead*; he answers, *May your head be sound*; and then goes to the judge to get from him a sealed piece of paper, by which he gives permission to have the body washed. The permission costs nothing, but the porter who delivers it has some perquisite, greater or smaller according to the rank and abilities of those who desire it. This paper is carried to the *mordichour*, or body-washer, which is an office, he alone, or those whom he appoints, can perform, in order that the number of the dead may be known, and the particular distemper of which they died. The said mordichour sends men to wash the corpses of men, and women to wash the corpses of women. The washer takes off the clothes from the corpse, they being his perquisites, for no one can touch a dead person without being defiled, and he carries it to the washing-place. There are such places in every town, situated in a retired and covered part of it. Ispahan, for instance, being divided into two parts, has two mordichours; and amongst other washing-places, there is a very large one in a back court of the old Mosque, twenty steps under ground. This is done only to the poor, for the rich are washed at home in a basin covered with a tent, lest any one should see the corpse. When it is washed, all the openings are stopped up closely with cotton, to keep in the foul humours, which might defile it.

"This being over, the body is put into a new linen cloth, on which, those who can afford it, cause some passages of their holy books to be written. Some contain the *Youchen*, a book concerning the attributes of God, to the number of a thousand and one; which odd reckoning is to show the infinite perfections of God, which are not to be comprehended by a thousand ideas, more than by one. The linen about the corpse of Saroutaky, a eunuch grand vizier, who was murdered in

the reign of Abas II., contained the whole Koran written with holy earth steeped in water and gum. They call holy earth, that of those places of Arabia which the Mahometans look upon as consecrated by the bodies of the saints who died there.

"In this condition, the corpse is placed in a remote part of the house, and if it is to be carried to some distant burying-place, they put it in a wooden coffin, filled with salt, lime, and perfumes, to preserve it. No other embalming is used in the East. They do not take out the bowels, a practice apparently to them uncleanly and wicked. Persia being a hot, dry country, the bodies are soon put into their coffins, otherwise it would not be possible to accomplish it, because they swell immoderately in eight or ten hours. The funerals are not accompanied in the East with much pomp. A *molla* comes with the coffin of the next mosque, an ill-contrived, rough, unhewn, and ill-jointed box, made up of three boards, with a cover which turns by a peg; the corpse is put into it, and if the deceased were poor, carried off without any further ceremony; only the bearers go with it, very fast and almost running, and pronouncing slowly the words *Alla, Alla!* that is, *God, God.*

"At the funeral of a person of quality, or one who is rich, the ensigns or banners of the mosque are carried before the corpse: they are long pikes of different sorts; some have at the end a hand of brass or copper, which is called the hand of Ali; others a half-moon; others the names of Mahomet, of his daughters, and of his twelve first lawful successors, done in cyphers; the latter are called *Tcharde Massoum*, that is, the fourteen pure and holy ones. More poles are still carried, at the top of which are put some brass or iron plates, three fingers broad, and three or four feet long, but so thin that the least motion makes them bend; to them are tied long slips of taffety, which hang down to the ground. These banners are followed by five or six led horses, with the arms and turban of the deceased: next to them comes the *Sirpare*, or the Koran, divided into thirty *guisve* or parts, written in large characters, each letter being an inch in size. The chief mosques have a similar one; thirty *talebelme*, or students, carry each one part, and read it, so that the whole is read over, before the body be put into the grave. At the burial of a woman, the *tcharchadour*, that is, a pall, supported on four long sticks, is placed over the coffin. This is the greatest funeral pomp, which the friends and relations cannot exceed, unless by an addition of each sort of standards, &c.

"The neighbours or servants of the deceased carry the

corpse, no bearers being appointed to perform that last duty ; but the Mahometan law teaches its followers to grant their assistance, and carry the coffin at least ten steps. Persons of note alight when they meet a funeral, comply with that pious custom, and then remount and proceed on their journey. They do not bury any one in their mosques, because though the corpse be purified, yet whatever it touches, or the place in which it is put, is looked upon as defiled.

“ In small towns, the burying places are on the road-side, without the gates, as a moral instruction to the living : but in great towns, which are situate in a dry air, several church-yards are to be seen. The graves are smaller in Persia than in other countries, only two feet broad, six in length, and four in depth. On that side of them which is towards Mecca, they dig a slanting vault, which is as long and broad as the first grave ; they thrust the corpse into it without a coffin, the face towards Mecca, and place two tiles to cover the head from the earth, when the grave is filled up. If the deceased were rich, or a warrior, his turban, sword, bow, and quiver full of arrows, are set by him, and the vault is plastered up with tiles. The *Sahieds*, who pretend to be the descendants of Mahomet, have no earth thrown upon them, their grave is covered only with a stone or brick, or that sort of hard brown marble which is common in Persia.

“ Stones are erected at the end of each tomb, with a turban, if it be a man's grave ; but plain, if a woman's. These tomb-stones ought not to exceed the height of four feet ; commonly they are but two feet high : the inscription on them does not declare the name nor praises of the deceased, it only contains some passages of the Koran. The common people begin to visit the grave at the end of eight or ten days ; the women particularly never fail : the church-yards are full of them, morning and evening, and on some particular festivals ; they bring their children with them, and lament the loss of their friends with tears and cries, beating their breasts, tearing their hair, scratching their faces, repeating the several dialogues and long discourses which they heretofore held with the deceased : every now and then saying, *Rouh, Rouh, soul, spirit, whither are you gone ? Why do you not animate this body ? And you, corpse, what occasion had you to die ? Did you want gold, silver, clothes, pleasures, or tender treatment ?* They are then comforted, and led away by their friends : sometimes they leave behind them cakes, fruits, sweetmeats, as an offering to the angels, guardians of the grave, to engage them to be favourable to the deceased.

"People of quality generally order their corpse to be buried near some great saint of their sect. They are seldom carried to Mecca or Medina, they being at too great a distance; but either to Negef, a town in the country, called Kerbela, where Ali, the grand saint of Persia, lies interred; or to Metched, near the grave of Imam Reza, or to Com near Fatime, (both were descendants of Ali,) or to Ardevil, near Cheik Sephy, at the distance of two or three month's journey. Whilst they prepare themselves for this long voyage, the coffin is put in some great mosque, where vaults are made for that purpose, which are walled up to keep the body from being seen; and they do not take it out, till every thing be ready to carry it off. The Persians fancy that corpses, under those circumstances, suffer no alteration; for, they say, before they putrify, they must give an account to the angels, who stay at the grave to examine them. The funeral convoy never goes through a town; this, as they think, would be a bad omen; *the dead must go out, but not come in*, is a common saying amongst the Persians.

"The mourning lasts forty days at most; it does not consist in wearing black clothes, (that colour is looked upon in the east as the devil's colour, and a hellish dress,) but in loud cries and lamentations, in sitting without motion, half-clad with a brown gown or one of a pale colour; in fasting for eight days, as if they were resolved to live no longer. Other friends send or come themselves to comfort the mourners. On the ninth day, the men go to the bagnio, have their head and beard shaved, put on new clothes, return their visits, and the mourning ceases abroad; but at home the cries are renewed now and then, twice or thrice a week, chiefly at the hour of the death. These cries diminish gradually till the fortieth day; after which, no further mention is made of the deceased. The women are not so easily comforted, for the state of widowhood is generally for life in the east.

"The motives of consolation alleged in Persia on the death of friends and relations are rational, and grounded on solid philosophy. They compare this life to a caravan, or a company of travellers; all come at last to the caravansary or inn; yet some arrive sooner, some later."

Friday is kept holy by Mahometans, as the Saturday is by the Jews, and Sunday by the Christians; either upon account of the entry of Mahomet into Medina, or because God completed the creation on that day, or rather out of policy; this being the day on which the ancient Arabians held their public and solemn meetings. Whatever may

Festivals.

have been the cause of the sanctification of that day, it is certain that Mahomet always kept it holy; for, as Abulpharage observes, the real motive of establishing festivals was in order, by public assemblies, to render the people more united, and to have some rest from their labours. The Mahometans are, however, very profuse in their praises on that day, which they call the "chief and most excellent of all days," for on it, it is supposed, that the last judgment will take place.

Their months are twelve, alternately of thirty and twenty-nine days, in all 354. According to which computation, their year is eleven days shorter than ours; which inconvenience is remedied by adding a month at proper periods. We shall here observe, that by the most exact computation, the Mahometan Hejira began July the 16th, in the year of Christ 622. The names of the months are, 1. Moharram. 2. Saphar. 3. Rabia the First. 4. A Second Rabia. 5. Sjumada the First. 6. A Second Sjumada. 7. Resjeb. 8. Siaban. 9. Rhamadan. 10. Sjewal. 11. Dulkadha. 12. Dsulkassja, or Dulhaggia.

Four of them, viz. Moharram, Resjeb, Dulkadha, and Dulhaggia, were looked upon as sacred by the ancient Arabians. No war nor hostility was lawful, if begun or carried on in these months; and the majority of the Arabian tribes observed this law so punctually, that even the murderer of their father or brother was not to be punished, nor any violence offered to him at that time. Dulhaggia was sanctified by the Pilgrimage of Mecca, Dulkadha as a preparation to it, and Moharram as coming from it; Resjeb was held still in greater veneration, being kept as a fast by the Arabian idolaters, who, on the contrary, spent the month Rhamadan in debauchery and drunkenness. Mahomet seems to approve of this institution of the sacred months in his Koran, in which he blames those Arabians who, being tired with living so long without robbing, deferred of their own authority, the sanctification of Moharram to the month following. To defeat the artful proceedings of these men, he enforces the keeping of the said three months, except in case of a war against infidels.

The first Feast of which we shall take notice is the Moon, of the month Sjewal, because the *Bairam* celebrated in that month has some affinity with our new year, by the good wishes and congratulations then in use with the Mahometans. This Bairam follows the Rhamadan fast, as Easter does that of Lent, and the Musulmen begin it by a solemn and general reconciliation, as our Easter is remarkable by the Paschal Communion. They

Feast to the moon.

have two Bairams, the greater one, which we are now describing, and the less, which takes place seventy days afterwards, viz. on the 10th of Dulhaggia. The latter is called the Feast of Sacrifices, on account of the victims offered during the pilgrimage of Mecca. The Bairam is published, at the first sight of the moon of Sjewal, or, if the weather be so cloudy that the moon cannot be seen, as expected, the feast begins on the following day; for in that case, they suppose the moon is changed. Amongst the numerous diversions then in use, seats are set in the streets, and contrived in such a manner that those who sit in them may swing in the air, accordingly as they are pushed faster or slower. These seats are adorned with several festoons. They have also wheels, on which people are alternately at the top, middle, and bottom. The night betwixt the 4th and 5th day of Resjeb is solemnized, on account of the Rhamadan Fast, though it happens two whole months afterwards. The night from the 26th to the 27th of the second Rabia is sacred, because Mahomet went then to heaven upon the Borak, in the same manner as the birth of the Prophet has occasioned the keeping holy the night of the eleventh to the twelfth of Rabia the First. The Rhamadan is, according to travellers, a mixture of devotion and debauchery. It begins with a kind of carnival, which Thevenot, who was an eyewitness, describes in the following words:—"The 12th of June, 1657, was the Turk's carnival, or beginning of their fast. It is called *Laylet el Kouvât*, that is, the *Night of Power*, because the Mahometans believe that the Koran then came down from heaven. After sunset, lamps are lighted in all the streets, chiefly in that called Bazaar, a long, broad, and strait street, through which the procession marches. Ropes are hung every ten steps, to which are tied iron hoops and baskets, each holding several lamps, thirty at the least. All these being in a direct line, furnish a fine prospect, and give a great light. Besides these several figures, the towers or minarets of the mosques are likewise illuminated. An infinite number of people crowd the streets, and with the Santons, &c., who make part of the ceremony, repair to the *Cadilesquer*, who informs them whether the *Ramesan* is to be kept that evening. Being informed that the moon has been seen, and that this is the night appointed for the solemnity, about two hours in the night, the Santons on foot, and armed with clubs, begin the march, each of them holding a taper in his hand, accompanied with other men carrying cresset-lights. They dance, sing, bawl, and howl; in the midst of them Scheik-el-Arsat, that is, 'the Prince of the Cornutos,' rides upon a mule; as he passes

them, the people make loud acclamations. After him several men come upon camels, with drums, kettle-drums, &c., followed by others in masquerade-dress, on foot, carrying cresset-lights, or long poles, at the end of which are large iron hoops filled with squibs and fireworks, which are thrown amongst the mob. Next to these, the men of the beys proceed on horse-back with their hand-guns, &c., and the procession is closed by other Santons, who celebrate by their songs the beginning of Ramesan. The whole assembly is composed of scoundrels met together, yet it is on the whole comical and diverting." Their fast continues the whole moon, and whilst it lasts, eating, drinking, even smoking, and putting any thing into their mouths, is absolutely forbidden from sunrise to sunset; but in recompense, they are allowed, during the whole of the night, to eat and drink whatever they please without any restraint, with the exception of wine. Formerly, the law punished those who were convicted of drinking wine, by pouring melted lead into their throats.

The Persians have three feasts peculiar to themselves, viz. the next day after their Lent, the sacrifice of Abraham, and the martyrdom of the children of their great prophet Ali. To these religious festivals, a fourth Persian Feasts. must be added, which is a civil ceremony, at the beginning of the new year, and usually lasts three days; but at court it is kept eight days successively. On the first day of the month Zilaje, (Dulhaggia,) at the moment of the sun's entering into Aries, this festival is proclaimed. It is called the Royal or Imperial New Year, to distinguish it from the real new year, which the Persians begin on the day of Mahomet's flight from Mecca. Chardin gives a full account of this feast, but we shall merely notice, that it had grown into disuse for many years, but was re-established from a principle of policy or superstition, or from the interested views of some astronomers, who were very powerful at court, and who pretended that the beginning of a solar year was a better omen than that of a lunar year, especially considering that the first ten days of it, and of the month Moharram, are days of mourning, in memory of the martyrdom of Ali's children.

This last mentioned solemnity is better known by the name of Hussein, or Hossein's Feast. He was son of Ali and of Fatima, daughter to Mahomet, and was killed in a battle, which he lost, disputing for the dignity Hussien's Feast. of Khalif. Hassein, his brother, lost his life with him. The death of these Mahometan prophets, or heroes, is still mourned for, where some are seen half naked, and

daubed over with blood, in memory of their tragical end; others black their faces and loll out their tongue, with convulsive motions of the body and rolling their eyes, because these two brothers, as the Persian legend relates, suffered so much by drought that they became black, and their tongues came out of their mouths. In the intervals of those pious contortions, they call aloud with all their might, *Hussein! Hassein! Hassein! Hussein!*

The present state and extent of the Mahometan religion is most amply delineated by Mr. Mills, in the last chapter of his excellent book; in which he traces it through the extensive regions of Tartary; the vast empire of China; the various districts of Hindoostan; from the southernmost point of which this religion is traced through the eastern islands; along the coasts of the Malayan peninsula, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, the Manillas, and the Celebezean islands. The little isle of Goram, one of the Spice islands, (between Ceram and Papua,) is the eastern boundary of the Mahometan world.

The sword of the Mahometans has for ages ceased to alarm the world, and the fire of their fanaticism has been spent; but their religion has suffered no visible diminution of followers: for although the Christians have triumphed over the Moors in Spain, and checked the advancement of Islamism in Siberia, yet, in the middle and lower Asia, and also in Africa, the professors of the Moslem's creed have gradually increased. It is impossible to estimate, with any approach to accuracy, the number either of Mussulmen or of Christians; but, considering for a moment the subject of religion in a geographical sense, it may be generally remarked, that as Christianity has unlimited influence in Europe, so Islamism is the dominant religion in Asia; and that, as the Christian faith has considerable weight in America, Mahometanism has its proportionate sway in Africa.

PART III.

RELIGIOUS TENETS, CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF THE
GREEK AND ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCHES.

CHAPTER I.—GREEK CHURCH.

SEC. I.—GREEK CHURCH PROPER.

THE Greek Church may be considered, in regard to its antiquity, as coeval with the Roman or Latin church, and for the first eight centuries, the two churches were assimilated, not only in regard to the peculiar doctrines of their faith, but also to their acknowledgment of the supremacy of the Roman pontiff. Greek church
coeval with
the Latin
church.

The schism of these two churches is a most memorable epoch in ecclesiastical history, as it forms the most distinguishing picture of the two religions at the present day. The members of the Greek or eastern church, as contra-distinguished to the Roman or western church, are to be found in various parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa, and are again subdivided into three distinct classes. 1st. Those who agree on all points of worship and doctrine, with the patriarch of Constantinople, and reject the supremacy of the Roman pontiff. 2d. Those who adopt the doctrines and ceremonies of the Greek church, and are entirely independent of the patriarch of Constantinople: and, 3d. those who are still subject to the see of Rome, though not conforming in all points to the worship of that church.

The Greek church is considered as a separation from the Latin. In the middle of the ninth century, the controversy relating to the procession of the Holy Ghost (which had been started in the sixth century) became a point of great importance, on account of the jealousy and ambition which at that time were blended with it. Rise and se-
paration of. Photius, the patriarch of Jerusalem, having been advanced to that see in the room of Ignatius, whom he procured to be deposed, was solemnly excommunicated by Pope Nicholas, in a council held at Rome, and his ordination declared null and void. The Greek emperor resented

this conduct of the pope, who defended himself with great spirit and resolution. Photius, in his turn, convened what he called an œcumenical council, in which he pronounced sentence of excommunication and deposition against the pope, and got it subscribed by twenty-one bishops and others, amounting in number to a thousand. This occasioned a wide breach between the sees of Rome and Constantinople. However, the death of the Emperor Michael, and the deposition of Photius, subsequent thereupon, seem to have restored peace; for the emperor Basil held a council at Constantinople, in the year 869, in which entire satisfaction was given to pope Adrian; but the schism was only smothered and suppressed for a while. The Greek church had several complaints against the Latin; particularly it was thought a great hardship for the Greeks to subscribe to the definition of a council according to the Roman form, prescribed by the pope, since it made the church of Constantinople dependant on that of Rome, and set the pope above an œcumenical council; but, above all, the pride and haughtiness of the Roman court gave the Greeks a great distaste; and as their deportment seemed to insult his Imperial Majesty, it entirely alienated the affections of the Emperor Basil. Towards the middle of the eleventh century, Michael Cerularius, patriarch of Constantinople, opposed the Latins with respect to their making use of unleavened bread in the eucharist, their observation of the sabbath, and fasting on Saturdays, charging them with living in communion with the Jews. To this Pope Leo IX. replied; and, in his apology for the Latins, declaimed very warmly against the false doctrine of the Greeks, and interposed, at the same time, the authority of his see. He likewise, by his legates, excommunicated the patriarch in the church of Santa Sophia, which gave the last shock to the reconciliation attempted a long time after, but to no purpose; for from that time the hatred of the Greeks to the Latins, and of the Latins to the Greeks, became insuperable, insomuch that they have continued ever since separated from each other's communion.*

As the numerous sects which are now subsisting in the Levant are of Greek origin, and as their principles and cere-

State of the monies, except in some few particular points, are Greek church. nearly the same, it will be necessary to treat on the religion of the Greeks (properly so called) before we descend to the different branches that have issued from it.

The Greek Church, which is now dependant on the patri-

* Buck's Theolog. Dic. Art. Greek Church.

arch of Constantinople, was not formerly so extensive as it has been since the emperors of the East thought proper to lessen or reduce the other patriarchates, in order to aggrandize that of Constantinople; a task which they accomplished with the greater ease, as they were much more powerful than the emperors of the West, and had little or no regard to the consent of the patriarchs in order to create new bishoprics, or to confer new titles and privileges. Whereas, in the western church, the popes, by slow degrees, made themselves the sole arbiters in all ecclesiastical concerns; insomuch that princes themselves at length became obliged to have recourse to them, and were subservient to their directions on every momentous occasion.

There are several catalogues or lists, now extant, of the churches which are dependant on that of Constantinople; but as most of them are very ancient, and do not sufficiently illustrate the vast extent of which that church at present boasts, we shall not quote any of them in this place; but merely state, that the number of metropolitans amounts to upwards of one hundred bishoprics.

The Greek churches at present deserve not even the name of the shadow of what they were in their former flourishing state, when they were so remarkably distinguished for the learned and worthy pastors who presided over them; but now nothing but wretchedness, ignorance, and poverty, are visible amongst them. "I have seen churches," says Ricaut, "which were more like caverns or sepulchres than places set apart for divine worship; the tops thereof being almost level with the ground. They are erected after this humble manner for fear they should be suspected, if they raised them any considerable height, of an evil intention to rival the Turkish mosques." It is, indeed, very surprising, that in the abject state to which the Greeks at present are reduced, the Christian religion should maintain the least footing amongst them. Their notions of Christianity are principally confined to the traditions of their forefathers and their own received customs; and, among other things, they are much addicted to external acts of piety and devotion, such as the observance of fasts, festivals, and penances: they revere and dread the censures of their clergy; and are bigoted slaves to their religious customs, which have been irrefutably proved to be absurd and ridiculous; and yet it must be acknowledged, that although these errors reflect a considerable degree of scandal and reproach upon the holy religion they profess, they nevertheless prevent it from being entirely lost and abolished amongst them. A fire

which lies for a time concealed under a heap of embers, may revive and burn again as bright as ever: and the same hope may be conceived of truth, when obscured by the dark clouds of ignorance and error.

Tenets of the Greek church. I. They rebaptize all those Latins who are admitted into their communion.

II. They do not baptize their children till they are three, four, five, six, ten, and even sometimes eighteen years of age.

III. They exclude Confirmation and Extreme Unction out of the Seven Sacraments.

IV. They deny there is any such place as Purgatory, notwithstanding they pray for the dead.

V. They do not absolutely acknowledge the Pope's supremacy, nor that of the Church of Rome, which they look upon as fallen from her supremacy, because, as a Greek schismatic historian expresses himself, *she had abandoned the doctrines of her fathers.*

VI. They deny, by consequence, that the Church of Rome is the true Catholic mother Church. They even prefer their own to that of Rome, and on Holy Thursday excommunicate the Pope and all the Latin prelates as heretics and schismatics, praying that all those who offer up unleavened bread in the celebration of the Sacrament, may be covered with confusion.

VII. They deny that the Holy Ghost proceeds from the Father and the Son.

VIII. They refuse to worship the Host consecrated by Latin priests with unleavened bread, according to the ancient custom of the Church of Rome, confirmed by the Council of Florence. They likewise wash the altars on which the Latins have celebrated mass; and will not suffer a Latin priest to officiate at their altars, pretending that the sacrifice ought to be performed with leavened bread.

IX. They assert, that the usual form of words, wherein the Consecration, according to the Latins, wholly consists, is not sufficient to change the bread and wine into the body and blood of Christ, without the use of some additional prayers and benedictions of the fathers.

X. They insist that the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper ought to be administered in both kinds to infants, even before they are capable of distinguishing this spiritual food from any other; because it is a divine institution. For which reason they give the Sacrament to infants immediately after baptism, and look upon the Latins as heretics for not observing the same custom.

XI. They hold, that the laity are under an indispensable obligation, by the law of God, to receive the Communion in both kinds, and look on the Latins as heretics, who maintain the contrary.

XII. They assert, that no members of the Church, when they have attained to years of discretion, ought to be compelled to receive the Communion every Easter; but should have free liberty to act according to the dictates of their own conscience.

XIII. They show no respect, no religious homage, nor veneration for the Holy Sacrament of the Eucharist, even at the celebration of their own priests; and use no lighted tapers when they administer it to the sick. Moreover, they keep it in a little bag or box, without any farther ceremony than fixing it to the wall, where they light up lamps before their images.

XIV. They are of opinion that such Hosts as are consecrated on Holy Thursday, are much more efficacious than those consecrated at other times.

XV. They maintain that the Sacrament of Matrimony is a union which may be dissolved. For which reason, they charge the Church of Rome with being guilty of an error, in asserting that the bonds of marriage can never be broken, even in case of adultery, and that no person upon any provocation whatsoever can lawfully marry again. But the Greeks preach up a wholly different doctrine, and practise it daily.

XVI. They condemn all fourth marriages.

XVII. They refuse to celebrate the solemnities instituted by the church and the primitive Fathers, in honour of the Virgin Mary and the Apostles; and, independently of their different manner of celebrating them, they wholly neglect and despise the observance of several Saints'-days which are of ancient institution. They reject likewise the religious use of graven images and statues, although they admit of pictures in their churches.

XVIII. They insist that the canon of the mass of the Latins ought to be abolished, as being full of errors.

XIX. They deny that usury is a mortal sin.

XX. They deny that the subdeaconry is at present a holy order.

XXI. Of all the general councils that have been held in the Catholic Church by the popes at different times, they pay no regard to any after the sixth, and reject not only the seventh, which was the second held at Nice, for the express purpose of condemning those who rejected the use of images in their divine worship, but all those which have succeeded it, by which they refuse to submit to any of their institutions.

XXII. They deny auricular confession to be a divine precept, and pretend it is only a positive injunction of the Church.

XXIII. They insist that the confession of the laity ought to be free and voluntary; for which reason they are not compelled to confess themselves annually, nor are they excommunicated for the neglect of it.

XXIV. They insist that in confession there is no divine law which enjoins the acknowledgment of every individual sin, or a discovery of all the circumstances that attend it, which alter its nature and property.

XXV. They administer the sacrament to their laity both in sickness and in health, though they have never applied themselves to their confessors; and the reason of which is, that they are persuaded all confessions should be free and voluntary, and that a lively faith is all the preparation that is requisite for the worthy receiving of the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper.

XXVI. They look down with an eye of disdain on the Latins for their observance of the vigils before the nativity of our Blessed Saviour, and the festivals of the Virgin Mary and the Apostles, as well as for their fasting in Ember-week. They even affect to eat meat more plentifully at those times than at any other, to testify their contempt of the Latin customs. They prohibit likewise all fasting on Saturdays, that preceding Easter only excepted.

XXVII. They condemn the Latins as heretics, for eating such things as have been strangled, and such other meats as are prohibited in the Old Testament.

XXVIII. They deny that simple fornication is a mortal sin.

XXIX. They insist that it is lawful to deceive an enemy, and that it is no sin to injure and oppress him.

XXX. They are of opinion, that in order to be saved, there is no necessity to make restitution of such goods as have been stolen or fraudulently obtained.

XXXI. To conclude: they hold that such as have been admitted into holy orders may become laymen at pleasure. From whence it plainly appears, that they do not allow the character of the priesthood to be indelible. To which it may be added, that they approve of the marriage of their priests, provided they enter into that state before their admission into holy orders, though they are never indulged in that respect after their ordination.

The Patriarch of Constantinople assumes the honourable title of *Universal* or *Œcumenical Patriarch*. As he pur-

chases his commission of the Grand Seignior, it may be easily supposed that he makes a tyrannical and simoniacal use of a privilege which he holds himself by simony. The Patriarch and bishops are always single men; but the priests are indulged in marriage before ordination; and this custom, which is generally practised all over the Levant, is very ancient. Should a priest happen to marry after ordination, he can officiate no longer as priest, which is conformable to the injunctions of the council of Neocesarea; the marriage, however, is not looked upon as invalid; whereas in the Latin Church, such marriages are pronounced void and of no effect, because the priesthood is looked upon as a lawful bar, or impediment.

Patriarch of
Constantino-
ple.

Their *Pappas*, or secular priests, not having any settled and competent livings, are obliged to subsist by simoniacal practices. "The clergy," says Ricaut, "are almost compelled to sell those divine mysteries which are entrusted to their care. No one, therefore, can procure absolution, be admitted to confession, have his children baptised, be married or divorced, or obtain an excommunication against his adversary, or the communion in time of sickness, without first paying down a valuable consideration. The priests make the best market they can, and fix a price on their spiritual commodities in proportion to the devotion or abilities of their respective customers;" added to which, they are so avaricious and rigid with their parishioners, that they will scarcely part with a single drop of holy water without being paid for it beforehand.

Pappas or
Priests.

The Greek Church has no established fund for the maintenance of their clergy; they subsist therefore by the levying of some certain duties, and by the charity and benevolence of well-disposed Christians. Each parish is obliged to maintain its own curate. Every house is assessed at a certain annual sum, which must be paid in money or effects. Each diocese is likewise taxed for the more honourable support of its bishop, &c.; but the avarice and illegal practices of the collectors countenance and encourage the petty shifts and evasions which are daily practised to elude them. Regarding the charity of the people, it is so very cold and languid, that it seems almost a sufficient plea for the simoniacal practices of the clergy.

A monastic life is held in great veneration among the Greeks; and although there are monks of different orders among them, yet all of them owe their origin to St. Basil, who was the sole founder of the monastic state.

Monastic
life held in
great veneration.

The two principal are styled the *Grand and Angelical Habit*, and the *Lesser Habit*. Those belonging to the former are persons of worth and distinction, and who prefer to lead a more righteous life than the rest.

Principal orders. Monks of the Lesser Habit are inferior persons who do not pretend to lead such sanctified lives. The latter live uncontrolled, and are left to their own discretion; for which reason, before they take up the habit, they deposite a certain sum of money for a cell, or small apartment, and other accommodations, belonging to the convent. The procurator or steward indeed supplies them with bread and wine, in the same manner as the rest, but in every other respect they provide for themselves; and being thus free from all the incumbrances of a convent, each one pursues his own particular affairs.

There is a third order, who are known and distinguished by the name of *Anchorets*; and though they do not choose to work, nor to perform the other duties of the convent, they are still very desirous of passing their lives in solitude and retirement. They purchase, therefore, a cell, or a little commodious apartment exterior to the convent, with a small spot of ground contiguous to it, sufficient to maintain them; and they never attend the convent but on solemn festivals, on which days they assist at the celebration of divine service. As soon as their public devotions are over, they return to their cells, and spend their time in the pursuit of their customary avocations, without being confined to any set time for their prayers, or other acts of private devotion. There are some of these anchorets, however, who retire altogether from the convent with the license and approbation of their abbot, in order to live still more retired, and to apply themselves more closely to prayer and contemplation. Having no grounds nor vineyards of their own to improve, the convent sends them, once at least, if not twice a month, a stated allowance. Those, however, who decline being dependant on, or pensioners to the abbot, rent some small vineyards situate near their cells, and maintain themselves out of the profits and product of them. Some live upon figs, some upon cherries, and others upon such wholesome fruits of a similar nature, which they can most commodiously procure. Some sow beans in their proper season; and others earn their bread by transcribing books or manuscripts.

Besides these monks, there are likewise nuns, who form themselves into communities. They are confined in convents, and live subject to the rule of St. Basil. They are in no degree inferior to the monks, with

Nuns.

respect to their abstemious course of life, their penances, fasts, prayers, and other acts of devotion, which are in general practised by recluses.

These nuns in general wear the same habit, which is black, with a woollen gown of the same colour. Their arms and hands are covered to their very finger's ends. Their heads are all shaved close; and each of them has a separate residence, with a commodious room above and below. Those who are in good circumstances are allowed to keep a servant, and sometimes they entertain young ladies in their society, and train them up in the practice of piety. After the customary duties are over, their leisure hours are advantageously spent in all manner of curious needlework.

The fasts of the Greeks are quite different from those of the Latins; for those of the latter are festival days when compared with the former; inasmuch as they not only abstain from eating the flesh of animals, Fasts. and their produce, such as butter and cheese; but they eat no manner of fish, and content themselves with fruits and herbs, to which they put a drop or two of oil; allowing themselves but a very small quantity of wine. The monks are still more rigorous; for they never taste a drop of wine nor oil, except on Saturdays and Sundays.

The Greek monks, according to Angelus, are obliged to fast three days, that is, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, in every week. On which days, about two in the afternoon they go to prayers; after that, they take some small refreshment, which principally consists of a few beans, with a little broth, without either oil or butter, or some other relished roots, with a small quantity of vinegar. In the evening, they resume their prayers; when service is over, they seat themselves round about the church, and the procurator distributes to each man a slice of bread and a glass of water. This indulgence, however, is shown only to the junior monks; the seniors have no share in this distribution. After a short interval they return to their public devotions, which last about half an hour, and sometimes an hour. On going out of the church, they pass in review before their superior, or principal, who stands at the church-door, and ask his blessing, which he gives to each of them in the following terms, *God be propitious to thee, my son!* After this benediction, each retires to his own cell, without speaking a single word upon any occasion. By their rule they are enjoined, after this, to spend a whole hour on their knees in private prayer. This exercise of devotion is followed by a very short repose; for about midnight, or soon

after, they rise again, and attend their public prayers, which are not over till break of day; at which time every one withdraws to his particular avocations, till some short interval before dinner; which is spent again at church in public devotions. As soon as dinner is served, the monks beg their abbot or superior's blessing, who stands at the upper end of the table. If any monk has had the misfortune to oversleep himself, and comes too late to church in the morning, as a penance for his indolence and neglect he is ordered to stand at the lower end of the table, and there repeat over and over with an audible voice, but with a humble and contrite heart, these words, *Have compassion, O Lord, on thy unworthy servant, according to thy infinite goodness and mercy!* till the monks are risen from table, and are ready to go away. Then the penitent prostrates himself with his face to the very ground, imploring forgiveness in this humble posture, and crying out, *Oh! holy fathers, pray for me, who am a poor sinful sluggard!* whereupon they with one voice reply, *God forgive you, my brother!* After which they all depart, except the poor penitent, who stays behind and dines by himself: none are exempted from this penance, from the highest to the lowest.

The Moscovites, however, having neither wine nor oil, are indulged in eating flesh. They abstain from eating flesh, butter, and cheese, on Wednesdays and Fridays, but have the free use of fish. The Greeks and other eastern nations censure the Latins very severely for fasting on Saturdays; since that day, in their opinion, is a festival, as well as Sunday; and this they endeavour to prove from their ancient canons, and the practice of the primitive Christians. In short, with respect to ceremonies, it may be said in general, that they observe a much greater number than any other Christian country whatsoever. The veneration which they pay to images is boundless and extravagant. Upon a solemn festival they plant the image of the saint to whom that day is devoted, in the centre of the church; which statue, or picture, is always an historical representation of some remarkable transaction which they then commemorate: as for instance, the nativity, or resurrection of our Blessed Saviour: at which time every devotee then present salutes the image; and this religious adoration is not performed by falling down on their knees, prostration, or any other particular gesticulations of the body; but by barely kissing the image. If it happens to be a representation of our Blessed Lord, they kiss his feet, if of the Virgin Mary, they salute her hands; and if it be only the image

of some memorable saint, they approach him with more familiarity, and kiss his cheek.

The supreme head of the Greek church is the Patriarch of Constantinople, whom they style the 13th Apostle; and whose usual title, when he subscribes any letter, or mis-
 sive, is "*by the mercy of God, Archbishop of Constantinople, the New Rome and Œcumenical Patriarch.*" ^{Head of the Greek church.} The right of electing him is vested in the twelve bishops who reside nearest that famous capital; but the right of confirming the election, and of enabling the new chosen patriarch to exercise his spiritual functions, belongs only to the Turkish emperor.

A patriarch of Constantinople formerly paid but ten thousand crowns for his instalment, but subsequently the price was advanced to twenty-five thousand. Even fifty and sixty thousand have been given by different patriarchs. Independently of this charge, which is so exceedingly heavy, the ministers of state often exact other fees, so very enormous, that the patriarch becomes always encumbered with debts, and is forced to study incessantly new ways and means to satisfy the avarice of his creditors. If he once proves deficient in his payments, he is presently deposed. And these may be considered as the genuine causes of those revolutions, which so frequently occur in the Greek Church, and which tend to support the tyrannical power of the Turks in the election of the clergy.

The revenues of the Patriarch of Constantinople are very precarious, and increase or decrease in value according to the degree of oppression which he suffers from the
 Turks, or to the character which he himself ^{Revenues.} bears, of being a virtuous or a dishonest man. The following are the sources from which his revenues arise. As soon as the patriarch is elected, he disposes of the vacant bishoprics and other benefices, to the best purchaser, and independently of the advantage of these sales, each bishopric, benefice, living, and convent within his jurisdiction, is assessed at a certain annual sum. Every priest in Constantinople pays him, annually, a crown. The bishops, following the laudable example of their patriarch, exact the utmost from those persons whom they admit into holy orders; and the priests, again, obtain a supply for their pecuniary necessities by the sale of the blessed Sacraments to the people. They likewise make them pay for their holy water, their consecrated bread, and the very seats in their churches. Several bishoprics are assessed after the rate of a thousand crowns per annum, and the convents in proportion. There are about one hundred and fifty bishops

and archbishops who are dependant on the patriarch, and he receives a fee from every one, whom he ordains in Constantinople, whether he be priest or deacon; and those who are constituted bishops, or archbishops, make him a present in proportion to their quality. For every marriage that is solemnized in Constantinople, or within the jurisdiction thereof, he has a crown. This perquisite at one time amounted to a very considerable sum, on account of the vast number of Greeks who settled in Constantinople. The fee upon a second marriage is doubled, and for the third and last, he receives a triple gratuity, no fourth marriage being allowed, according to the tenets of the Greek church.

One of the principal branches of the patriarch's revenues arises from particular patrimonies, or estates of inheritance. In case a priest dies without issue, the patriarch has a just claim to all his effects, as the spiritual father and common heir of the clergy; and those Greeks who die possessed of very large estates generally remember the patriarch in their wills, and leave him either lands, houses, or ready money. Once in three years he collects a penny per head of every parishioner in his patriarchate; to which are added the contributions raised for him during Lent in the churches of Constantinople and Galata. Finally, the Czar of Muscovy himself makes him a very handsome present as a mark of his peculiar friendship and respect; and, on the other hand, the Greeks testify an extraordinary regard for the Russian nation, on account of some particular prophecies, which intimate that the Russians will one day deliver the Greeks from the tyranny and oppression of the Turks.

After the Patriarch of Constantinople, the richest is that of Jerusalem, on account of the large sums of money arising from his profits by consecrated fires. The Patriarch of Antioch is the poorest of them all.

Other Patriarchs. That of Alexandria is very powerful, with respect to the ecclesiastical government, and he makes himself formidable by the execution of his penal laws. He assumes the grand title of *Judge of the whole World*, as well as that of Pope. But what distinguishes him in a particular manner from the Patriarch of Constantinople is, the advantage which he enjoys of being less exposed to the avarice and resentments of the Turks. His election is carried on without those artifices and intrigues, which are practised in that of the former, and the votes of the electors are much more free.

As to the revenues of the archbishops and bishops, they consist, in like manner, in the moneys arising from their re-

spective ordinations. They have a fee of a crown upon all marriages; and every house in their particular diocess supplies them with a certain quantity of corn, fruits, wine, and oil. Revenues of the other Clergy.

The priests live on the revenues of the churches, or on the voluntary bounty and benevolence of their parishioners, and their public collections on solemn festivals. Every time a priest says mass, either on a holyday or Sunday, each house pays him two-thirds of a farthing, and, as a grateful acknowledgment, the priest on his part is obliged, before the sacrifice is offered up, to say a prayer, and beg of God to bless each of his benefactors for this small gratuity. It is, however, a custom amongst the Greeks to enjoy themselves, and to have an elegant entertainment on all solemn festivals, at which the priests always attend and give their blessing, as soon as the first course comes upon the table. This short religious service entitles them to some bread, meat, wine, and a small sum of money. As their whole maintenance, however, depends upon the good circumstances and liberality of their parishioners, their income is very uncertain and precarious, which naturally tends to make them avaricious and anxious in mind, abject and submissive in their behaviour, and lukewarm in their devotion. If any religious services be required of them, whether it be absolution, confession, baptism, marriage, divorce, excommunication, or administration of the sacraments to the sick, the price of each individual service must be first settled and adjusted. The priests make the best bargain they possibly can, always proportioning their fees to the zeal and circumstances of the devotees, with whom they hold this religious commerce.

The patriarch is elected by the archbishops and bishops, by a majority of votes; but this formality carries with it no weight nor importance, without the consent and approbation of the Grand Seignior. Election of the Patriarch. Before the election begins, it is customary to address the Grand Vizier for his license and permission to proceed upon it; and this minister summons the archbishops, and inquires of them, whether they be fully determined to proceed to the election of a new patriarch. He repeats the question a second time, and grants his consent together with the baratz. His highness then presents the patriarch with a white horse, a black capuch, a crosier, and an embroidered caftan. In this ceremony, the Turk retains the ancient custom of the Grecian emperors. After this, the patriarch, attended by a long train of Turkish officers, his own clergy,

and a great concourse of people, repairs to his patriarchal see with all imaginable pomp and solemnity. The principal archbishops, and the remainder of the clergy, with wax-tapers in their hands, receive him at the church-door; and the bishop of Heraclea, as chief archbishop, having a right to consecrate him, being dressed in his pontifical robes, takes the patriarch by the hand, and conducts him to the throne. Previously to this ceremony, however, he makes a short harangue to the people, and informs them, that such a person has been elected patriarch by the general suffrage of the archbishops and bishops, according to the canons of the church, and then invites the patriarch to take possession of the important trust reposed in him, who with gravity professes to decline it, as not considering himself worthy of so great an honour: however, as it is conferred upon him by the will of Heaven, he submits at last to the decisions of the clergy. This ceremony being accomplished, he receives the cross, the mitre, and the other pontifical ornaments, from the hands of the archbishop of Heraclea. He seats himself on his throne; and the bishops, inferior clergy, and the populace, pay him the usual compliments, exclaiming, *Ad multos annos Domine*. The celebration of the mass, with the usual ceremonies observed on solemn festivals, immediately succeed, and close the ceremony.

According to ancient custom, the patriarch, bishops, and other dignified clergy, ought to have none but monks for their ministers, and no secular assistants. Before the conquest of Constantinople they were ecclesiastics, but at present they are all seculars, four only excepted; and this arrangement augments, on the one hand, the revenues of the patriarch; and, on the other, gratifies the ambition of the seculars. The following are the several officers, ranged in their proper order, in regard to their respective functions, both ecclesiastical and civil.

At the patriarch's right hand stands his grand œconomist, or high steward, whose peculiar province it is to collect the revenues, and discharge the necessary disbursements of the patriarchate. He delivers in his accounts twice a year, and assists at the patriarchal tribunal, whenever the court sits. When a bishop dies, he likewise superintends the affairs of the vacant see, and has the first vote in every new election.

The *grand sacellarius*, or high-master of the chapel, assists the patriarch in the administration of all his judicial affairs, and in the regular performance of the several ceremonies enjoined by the Church. It is a part of his office, likewise, to present all candidates to be ordained, and not only the mo-

nasteries of the monks, but the convents of the nuns, are subject to his inspection.

The *high treasurer*, who is keeper of the sacred vessels and pontifical ornaments belonging to the church, stands at the door of the vestry, in which they are always deposited, and not only delivers out the proper habiliments to the officiating prelate, but takes care that every article be regularly placed upon the altar. When any bishopric is vacant, it is his province likewise to take care of the revenues belonging to it.

The *grand official* takes cognizance of all affairs relating to benefices, and the impediments which obstruct marriages: he likewise introduces all those priests who come to receive the Sacrament on solemn festivals.

The *grand logothetes*, or high chancellor. He is the speaker, has the patriarch's signet in his custody, and seals all his letters.

The *grand referendary* despatches all the patriarch's orders, is his deputy to persons of distinction, and is one of the ecclesiastical judges. He was distinguished by the title of the palatine in the time of the Greek emperors.

The *grand prothonotary* sits directly opposite to the Patriarch, to transcribe and deliver out all his briefs, mandamuses, orders and decrees. It is his province also to examine twice a year all the professors of the canon law. All contracts, and last wills or testaments are under his inspection. Finally, he attends the patriarch in the sanctuary, and brings him water to wash his hands during the celebration of divine service.

All the above-named officers, as well as those who follow, though their office be inferior, still preserve their ancient dignity, and stand at the patriarch's right hand at all public solemnities.

The *thuroferary*, or incense-bearer, independently of the duty implied in his name, covers the consecrated vessels, or implements, with a veil, during the anthem to the sacred Trinity, and assists the celebrant in putting on his sacerdotal vestments.

The next officer is employed in noting down the votes of the bishops, and receiving petitions and remonstrances. The *protecdice*, or advocate, determines all petty causes, and his court is held in the church porch. The *hieromnemon* is intrusted with the care of the ritual, which is called *contacium*, and other church books. It is his province likewise to consecrate any new church in the bishop's absence, and to ordain

the readers. There is another officer who takes care of the supergenuial of the patriarch, and one who has the title of doctor.

On the left hand of the patriarch attend the protopapas, or high priest, the deutereuon, or second visiter, the prefect of the churches, the ecdices, or lateral judges, the exarch, the two domestics, the two laosynactes, the two deans, the protopsaltes, or chief singer, the deputy, the grand archdeacon and the secondary deacon. The protopapas, whose dignity is entirely ecclesiastical, administers the Holy Sacrament to the patriarch at all high and solemn masses, and receives it from him. He is the head ecclesiastical dignitary, not only with respect to his peculiar privileges, but to his right and title to precedence. The deutereuon, when the protopapas happens to be absent, officiates in his stead. The visiter, amongst several other prerogatives belonging to his office, enjoys the privilege of examining into all ecclesiastical debates, and all impediments in matrimonial cases. The sacred oil, and what the Greeks call the antimensium, which is a portable altar, are intrusted to the sole direction and management of the prefect, or superintendent. He has the honour to erect the cross on such spot of ground as is marked out, and set apart for a new church, when the patriarch cannot perform this ceremony himself. The exarch revises all causes in which sentence has been already passed. The domestics, as also the two deans, who sit above the deacons, are ranged on each side of the protopsaltes, or master of the choir, and sing with him. The laosynactes assemble the deacons and people together. The deputy introduces strangers into the presence of the patriarch, and clears the way to and from his audience. He may be styled with propriety the master of the ceremonies. Those who stand on the left hand of the patriarch are the catechist, who instructs and prepares all those persons for the Sacrament of Baptism, who renounce their heretical tenets, and desire to be admitted into the pale of the Church. The periodeutes goes likewise from one place to another, to instruct those that are intended to be baptized: the prefect, or master of the ceremonies, an office distinct from that of the deputy, assigns every person his proper place.

The *protosyncellus* is, properly speaking, inspector-general of the patriarch himself. He has a right and title to an apartment in his palace, and resides there at night with several other syncelli, who are under his direction. His apartment joins the patriarch's, and, in fine, he is not only the patriarch's vicar and assistant, but his ghostly father.

The service of the Greeks consists of nine parts; viz. the nocturns, or night service, the morning service, or matins, the laudes, prime, tierce, sexte, none, vespers, and complin. After the nocturnal, they sing the *Service, Liturgy, &c.* trisagium, or *Holy God, Holy and Omnipotent, Holy and Eternal*; and repeat the Gloria Patri three times successively, &c.; and at all the hours perform the same service.

The Greeks have four distinct liturgies; the first is that of *St. James*, which has met with a universal reception throughout the Greek Church. As this particular service is very long, and requires five hours at least for the celebration of it, it is read but once a-year, that is, on the 23d of October, which is *St. James's Day*. The second is that of *St. Basil*. This Father distinctly perceived, that the unmerciful length of *St. James's* liturgy tired the people, and damped their devotion; and therefore determined to abridge it. The liturgy of *Basil*, is read every Sunday in Lent, Palm Sunday excepted; on Holy Saturday, on the vigils or eves of Christmas, the Epiphany, and the festival of *St. Basil*. The third liturgy is that of *St. Chrysostom*; who ascertained that the liturgy of *St. Basil*, though an abridgment, was still too tedious, and that he did not make sufficient allowance for the weakness and frailty of the faithful, who are unable to support a close attention to the duties of religion for several consecutive hours. *St. Chrysostom*, therefore, made a new reduction of this liturgy, or rather extracted the most essential parts from *St. Basil's* abridgment, and inserted them in his own. This liturgy of *St. Chrysostom* is used during the whole year, except on the days above particularly specified. The fourth, which is that of *St. Gregory*, is called the *preconsecrated liturgy*, because it always follows that of *St. Chrysostom* or *St. Basil*. The last liturgy of *St. Gregory* is no more than a collection of prayers peculiarly adapted to inspire both the priest and the people with that ardent zeal and devotion which are requisite for the Lord's Supper.

During divine service the Greeks observe several distinct postures, which are considered as actually essential, and of the greatest moment in the performance of their religious duties; in general, when they pray, they stand upright, and turn their faces to the east; but they may lean, or even sit down to rest themselves, when they find it convenient. The laity sit, whilst the priest reads his exhortation to them; but stand, when they pray to God or sing an anthem. On reaching their respective places they uncover their heads, and make

the sign of the cross, by joining the three first fingers of their right hand, by which it is implied, that there are three persons in the sacred Godhead. In this sign of the cross, the three fingers placed on the forehead denote, that the three persons in the sacred Godhead reside in the kingdom of heaven : when brought below the breast, they point out four great mysteries at once, viz. Christ's incarnation, crucifixion, burial, and descent into hell. When placed on the right shoulder, they imply that Jesus Christ being risen, sits at the right hand of God. In short, as the left shoulder is a type, or figure of the reprobation of the wicked, the Greek devotee, by placing his three fingers there, begs of God, that he may not be reckoned amongst the number of those abandoned wretches ; but be delivered from the power of the devil.

The whole devotion of the Greeks is comprised in the sign of the cross, and the collection of prayers, commonly called the *Horologium*, which are much the same as the *Hours* of the *Latins*. By this *Horologium*, it is manifest that they pray to the saints and the Virgin Mary. The latter is therein called *the mother of God, the Queen of the Universe, and the Glory of the Orthodox*. In one particular prayer of the *nocturnal* service they implore the Blessed Virgin to frustrate the counsels of the ungodly, to fight for their rightful sovereign, and intercede for the peace and tranquillity of the whole world, &c.

It is remarkable, that their women, in some certain cases, are not allowed to enter their churches ; but are obliged to stand at the door, as if their breath were infectious, and they never presume either to approach the communion table, or kiss their images.

The Greeks celebrate mass, which consists of a round of ceremonies, somewhat similar to those of the Catholic mass.

Mass. The laity, as well as the clergy, however, among the Greeks, take the sacrament in both kinds, and receive from the hands of the priest the consecrated bread and wine in the same spoon, which the Greeks call *Labis*. The laity receive the sacrament standing at the door of the sanctuary ; the men first, and then the women. Those who presume to partake of this holy banquet must stand in a modest and reverential posture ; their eyes must be fixed on the ground, their head bowed down, as persons in the act of adoration, and their arms must be laid across. The Greeks follow the example of the Catholics, carry the communion to the sick, but with less pomp or grandeur, it being contained in a little box, enclosed in a bag which the priest bears under

his arm. This is a small parcel or portion of the blessed bread, which they also carry to those whose business confines them at home. The bishop of Vabres says, that they take a small portion of consecrated bread, about an inch square, cut in the form of a cross and sprinkled with a little blood, (that is, transubstantiated wine,) and administer it to the sick, after having moistened it with a little water, or a little wine, and this is their *viaticum* which they give to sick and dying persons.

It is a custom amongst the Greeks, when the foundation of any church is to be laid, for the patriarch or bishop, dressed in all his pontifical robes, to repair to the place, Churches. and to bless it in the following manner. Hethurifies or incenses every individual part of the whole foundation; during which ceremony, the clergy sing anthems in honour to the particular saint to whom the church is to be devoted. As soon as he arrives at the place appointed for the high altar, he says a prayer, in which he begs that the Lord would be pleased to bless and prosper the intended edifice. After that, the bishop who consecrates it takes a stone, makes a cross with it, and lays it on the foundation, saying, *The Lord hath laid the foundation of this house; it shall never be shaken.* This office properly belongs to the bishop, or such other person as the patriarch shall think fit to nominate or appoint; as well as another office which the Greeks call *Stauropegium*, i. e. the consecration or dedication of the church. A wooden cross is erected behind the communion-table, and in order the better to certify and assure the faithful, that this cross will be able to dispel and keep the infernal powers at a distance, a particular prayer is repeated, in which the miraculous rod of Moses is said to be an antecedent type of that of our Lord Jesus Christ; as the cross at the consecration is its subsequent figure or representation.

When the Greeks lay the foundation of any edifice, the priest blesses both the work and the workmen; and as soon as the priest has retired, the following ceremony is observed: the labourers kill a cock or a sheep, and bury the blood of it under the foundation-stone, they being of opinion, that there is a kind of magic or charm in this ceremony, of singular service and importance to the building. This ceremony is called *Thusia*, that is, sacrifice.

There is, however, a still more remarkable ceremony prevalent amongst the Greeks, and which may be adduced as a strong proof of the gross superstition in which they are unhappily immersed. When they entertain any resentment

against a particular person, in order to satisfy their malice and revenge, they take an exact measure of the height and circumference of his body. This measure they carry to one of the workmen employed in laying the foundation of an edifice, who, for a small gratuity, buries it under one of the first stones. They flatter themselves, that their enemy will die soon after, or languish and fall away by degrees, in the same manner as this secret instrument of their revenge perishes and decays.

The churches of Constantinople are generally built in the form of the Greek cross, that is, an equilateral square. The choir always fronts the east. Some ancient churches, which are still extant, have two naves, either sharp-roofed, or vaulted; and their steeples, which are not of the least service, there being no bells in them, are erected in the middle of the two roofs. The Greeks are prohibited by the Turks from making use of bells, alleging, that the sound of them interrupts and disturbs the repose of departed souls.

The Greeks have four solemn feasts, or Lents. The first commences on the 15th of *November*, or forty days before Christmas. The second is our Lent, which immediately precedes Easter, which they keep according to the old style, the Eastern Christians not having admitted the Gregorian Reformation of the Calendar. Their third is distinguished by the title of *the Fast of the Holy Apostles*, which they observe upon the supposition, that the apostles then prepared themselves by prayer and fasting for the promulgation of the Gospel. This fast commences the week after Whit-Sunday, and continues till the festival of St. Peter and St. Paul. The number of days therefore comprised in this Lent is not settled nor determined; but consists of more or less, according as Whit-Sunday falls sooner or later. Their fourth fast commences the first of *August*, and lasts only until the 15th. It is by this fast, that they prepare themselves for the celebration of the festival, called, *the Assumption of the Blessed Virgin*. This fast is observed so strictly, that the Greek monks are not allowed to touch one drop of oil during the continuance of it; and it is looked upon as a duty incumbent on all persons in general, except on the sixth of August, which is the festival of the *Transfiguration*, at which time they are indulged in the eating both of oil and fish; but on the following day they are obliged to observe the same rules of abstinence as were before prescribed to them.

The Greeks testify a peculiar veneration for the Blessed Virgin; and the expressions which they make use of in the

prayers particularly addressed to her, are excessively extravagant, and border strongly upon the ridiculous. It is the custom of the most zealous devotees to dedicate to her after their meals a small piece of bread, which they cut in a triangular form, and, after thurification, elevate it to her honour.

To these four general fasts must be added, that of the 28th of August, in commemoration of the martyrdom of St. John the Baptist. They prepare themselves by a fourteen days fast for the festival of the Exaltation of the Cross; during which time the monks preach, and endeavour to affect the people with a long and pathetic history of our Saviour's Passion: few, however, excepting the monks, observe the latter fast; they being the persons who peculiarly devote themselves to exercises of devotion, and the mortification of the flesh; accordingly, they not only abstain from all flesh, butter, cheese, and milk; but from all fish that have either shells, fins, or blood. They are allowed, however, to eat any kind of fish, during that Lent which begins the 15th of November; as well as on their ordinary fast-days of Wednesdays and Fridays; which days are in general fast-days throughout the year, except a few particular ones, and amongst the rest, those in the eleventh week before Easter, which they call *Artzeburst*, which, in the Armenian language, signifies messenger; and the cause of this exception is at once curious and entertaining. A favourite dog, that served in the capacity of carrier or messenger to some particular heretics, having died, they immediately accused the orthodox with being the contrivers and promoters of his death; and in commemoration of the good services of the dog, and as a public testimony of their unfeigned sorrow at his untimely end, the heretics set apart two days of this eleventh week to be observed as a fast. These two days were Wednesday and Friday, and the orthodox were absolved by the Greek church from fasting on those two days, lest they should act in conformity to an erroneous practice, established by the heretics. The Greeks likewise abstain from all kind of meats on Whitsun-Monday; on which day the people repair to church early in the morning, in order to pray to God for that communication of the Holy Ghost, which he formerly conferred on the blessed apostles. On the 25th of March, which is the festival of the Annunciation of the Blessed Virgin Mary, they are allowed to eat what fish they please, notwithstanding this holyday falls in Lent. They are permitted likewise to eat meat from Christmas till the Epiphany, or Festival of the Three Kings, not excluding

Wednesdays and Fridays, which, amongst the Greeks, are accounted fast days throughout the whole year. The Greeks select Wednesday, because Judas on that day took the nine pieces of silver to betray his Master; and Friday, on account of Christ's Passion.

Lent with the Greeks commences on a Monday, and their strict observance of all their fasts can only be equalled by their superstition. They look upon those persons, who, without an absolute necessity, violate the laws of abstinence, and, consequently, the constitutions of their church, to be as infamous and as criminal, in all respects, as those who are guilty of theft or adultery. They entertain such an exalted and extravagant idea of these fasts, that they imagine Christianity cannot possibly subsist without them, and they hesitate not to suspect the sincerity of those professors who presume to neglect or infringe the strict observance of them. This partial and more than common regard for fasts, induces the Eastern nations to believe that the Protestant Churches are all heterodox, as they observe no days of penance; to which may be added their total want of a profound veneration for the sign of the cross.

The Greeks are so superstitious and extravagant in the observance of their fasts, that they will not admit of any cases of sufficient urgency to justify the grant of any dispensations; and the patriarch himself, according to their ideas, cannot authorize nor empower any person to eat meat, when the church has enjoined the contrary. They think it their duty rather to let a sick man die, than restore him to health, if they could, by such an abominable prescription as a mess of broth; it is true, nevertheless, that a father confessor will sometimes, when he entertains a particular love and respect for a person that is indisposed, order and advise him to eat meat, and promise him his absolution from the sin, upon his coming to confession. Upon a general computation, there are only about one hundred and thirty days in the year on which meat is allowed; and neither old nor young, sick nor weak, are excused from the strict observance of all their fasts.

In regard to their feasts, Easter is accounted by the Greek church the most solemn festival in the year. It is customary for them at this time, upon meeting with their friends, to greet them with this formal salutation, *Jesus Christ is risen from the dead*; to which the person accosted replies, *He is risen indeed*; at the same time, they kiss each other three times, once on each cheek, and once upon their lips, and then part. This ceremony is observed on Good Friday, Easter-

Sunday, and the three subsequent days ; and every week till Whitsuntide. According to some historians, two priests on Good Friday, in order to commemorate the sacred sepulchre, carry in procession at night upon their shoulders, the picture or representation of a tomb, in which the crucified Jesus, painted on a board, is deposited. On Easter Sunday, this sepulchre is carried out of the church, and exposed to the public view ; when the priest begins to sing, *Jesus Christ is risen from the dead ; he has triumphed over death, and given life to all such as were laid in their graves.* After which, it is carried back to the church, and there thurified or incensed, and the service is continued. The priest and the congregation repeat almost every moment this form of words, *Jesus Christ is risen from the dead.* In the next place, the celebrant, or officiating priest, makes three signs of the cross, kisses the Gospel, and the image of Jesus Christ. Then the picture is turned on the other side, on which Jesus Christ is represented as rising out of his sepulchre. The priest kisses it, and in a more elevated strain pronounces the same form, *Jesus Christ is risen from the dead.* The whole congregation embrace and make their peace with each other, and in their transports of joy at the sight of this rough sketch of the resurrection, fire their pistols, which frequently singe the hair and beards of the reverend *Pappas*. The ceremony concludes with the benediction pronounced by the officiating priest. The women observe much the same ceremony amongst themselves, in that part of the church which is appropriated to their peculiar service, with the exception of the firing of the pistols.

On Holy Thursday, some of the most zealous bishops wash the feet of twelve priests, and the following is a description of this solemnity. Twelve of the most venerable priests attend the archbishop to church, where he is dressed in a purple robe. As soon as one part of the service is concluded, he enters into the sanctuary, divests himself of his purple vestment, and puts on another of much greater pomp and splendour. The priests, who in this ceremony represent the twelve apostles, have each of them a robe of a different colour. The eldest and most venerable father is selected to personate St. Peter, and takes the first place on the right hand. One of them, who is obliged to have a red beard, in order to render the ceremony more lively and natural, has the misfortune to supply the place of Judas. All these priests being thus regularly placed, the prelate goes out to change his habiliments, and returns with a napkin tied round his waist, and a basin of water in his hand to wash the feet of these twelve apostles.

He who personates St. Peter, refuses at first the honour intended him, saying, *Master, thou shalt never wash my feet.* But the prelate answers him, *Unless I wash thee, thou shalt have no part in me.* Upon which, the priest makes no further resistance, but permits him to wash his feet. When the prelate comes to the unhappy representative of Judas, he makes a kind of pause, as if to give him time to recollect himself, but at last washes his feet also; and the ceremony closes with several anthems.

On the 2d of September, the monks alone celebrate the festival of St. John the Baptist, whom they have dignified with the character of temperate and abstemious, as setting the first glorious example of fasting. The 26th is consecrated in commemoration of St. John the Evangelist, of whom it is a received notion amongst the Greeks, that he was snatched up to heaven like Enoch and Elias.

According to Christopher Angelus, there are six-and-thirty solemn festivals in the Greek calendar, twelve of which are devoted to the honour and service of the Lord Jesus, and the Blessed Virgin; the remaining twenty-four are appropriated to St. John the Baptist, the Apostles, and the Holy Martyrs.

The first sacrament of the Greek Church is that of baptism, and the Greeks take care to bring their children as soon as they are eight days old, to the church door.

Baptism. This religious custom is very ancient amongst them, and may be regarded as an imitation, or subsequent figure, of the presentation of Jesus Christ in the temple of Jerusalem. If an infant, however, be in any apparent danger of death, he is baptized immediately, for fear he should die in darkness, or as they express it, *out of the light.* The priest goes to the church door, in order to receive the infant, and to give him his benediction, as St. Simon formerly did to our blessed Saviour. At the same time he marks him with the sign of the cross on his forehead, his mouth, and his breast. These are the preliminary ceremonies to the sacrament of Baptism, and are styled, *putting the seal upon an infant.* The initial ceremony is followed by a prayer repeated by the priest; after which he takes the infant and raises him in his arms, either before the church door, or the image of the blessed Virgin, making several signs of the cross upon him. This baptism is performed by a threefold immersion; but before he administers this sacrament, the priest breathes three times on the infant, which is looked upon as an exorcism, and deliverance from the power and malice of the devil; afterwards he plunges him three times all over in the baptismal font, and at each

immersion names one of the three personages of the sacred Trinity. The relations, who bring the child to be baptized, take care to have the baptismal water warmed, throwing into it a collection of the most odoriferous flowers; and whilst the water is warming the priest sanctifies it by a prayer, breathes upon it, and then pours oil into it, and, with the same oil, anoints the infant in the form of a cross. The oil is a symbol or figure of man's reconciliation with his Maker, and this unction is performed by the priest upon the child's forehead and breast, all round about his ears, and upon his loins, during which he pronounces the following forms of words, in anointing the forehead, *The servant of the Lord is anointed*; in anointing his breast, *For the cure of his soul and body*; and at the unction of his ears he adds, *that the faith may be received by hearing*.

After the last prayer in the office of baptism, the infant is confirmed by the priest, who, on applying the chrism, in the form of a cross, to the forehead, eyes, nose, mouth, ears, breast, hands, and feet of the infant, says, *Behold the seal of the gift of the Holy Ghost*.

Seven days after baptism, the infant is brought to church in order to be washed. The priest, pronouncing the prayers directed in their ritual, not only washes the infant's shirt, but cleans his body with a new sponge, or a linen cloth prepared for that purpose, and dismisses him with the following words, *Thou art now baptised, surrounded with a celestial light, fortified with the Sacrament of Confirmation, and sanctified and washed in the name of the Father, of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost*.

Excommunication excludes the offender from the pale of the Church; deprives him of all communion with the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost; cuts him off from all communion with the three hundred and eighteen fathers of the first council of Nice, and with the saints; consigns him over to the devil and the traitor Judas; and, in short, condemns his body to remain after death as hard as a flint or a piece of steel, unless he humbles himself, and makes atonement for his sins by a sincere repentance. The whole form of excommunication abounds with the most direful imprecations; and if it does not absolutely deprive the delinquent of the enjoyment of the four elements, it calls down more curses on his head than are requisite to render that enjoyment insupportable. It even prohibits his interment after his decease; and the awful apprehension of such appalling misfortunes contributes very much, beyond all doubt, towards imprinting on

the minds of the Greeks a lively sense of their duty ; to which may be added, their belief respecting those excommunicated persons, who die in impenitence, that their bodies will never dissolve nor moulder away, until such excommunication be taken off. The devil, according to a received notion amongst the Greeks, enters into their lifeless corpses, and makes them subservient to his wayward will and pleasure.

The particular ceremonies and preliminaries of the marriage rites of the Greeks are as singular and remarkable as

those of other countries, and we shall, in the first place, describe those which may, with propriety, be termed religious. In the office of matrimony there is a prayer for the bride, who is to be muffled up either in a veil, or a hood. Those who are inclined to be joined together in the bands of wedlock, make their applications to the priest as soon as mass is over for the solemnization of their nuptials. The bridegroom stands on the right hand, and the bride on the left. Two rings, one gold, the other silver, are deposited near to each other on the right side of the communion table, the latter pointing to the right hand, and the former to the left. The priest who performs the ceremony, makes several crosses upon the bride and bridegroom ; puts lighted wax-tapers in their hands, thurifies, or incenses them, in the form of a cross, and accompanies them to the temple. The choir and the deacon pray alternately that the bridegroom and the bride may prosper in all their undertakings, and be blessed with a numerous, and hopeful issue. When these prayers are over, the priest gives the gold ring to the bridegroom, and the silver one to his spouse, saying three times successively, *I join* (or *I tie*) *N. and N. these servants of the Almighty here present, in the Name of the Father, &c.* Having pronounced this form of words, he makes the sign of the cross with the rings over their heads, before he puts them on the proper finger of the right hand. Then the paranymp, or brideman, exchanges these two rings, and the priest reads a long prayer, in which the virtue and dignity of the nuptial ring are typically compared to *Joseph's* ring, and that of *Daniel*, and of *Thamar*.

While the bride and bridegroom are crowned, the same priest accompanies the ceremony with several benedictions, and other emphatical prayers, which being completed, the bridegroom and his spouse enter the church with their wax-tapers lighted in their hands ; the priest marches in procession before them, with his incense-pot, singing, as he proceeds, the 128th Psalm, which consists of a promise to the faithful *Jews* of a prosperous and fruitful marriage. At the close of every

verse the congregation repeat the *Doxology*, or the *Gloria Patri*. The deacon, as soon as the psalms are over, resumes the prayers, and the choir makes the usual responses.

These prayers being concluded, the priest places the crown on the bridegroom's head, saying, *This man, the servant of the Lord, is crowned, in order to be married to this woman, &c.* After which, he crowns the bride, and repeats the same form, which is followed by a triple benediction, the proper lessons, and prayers. The priest, in the next place, presents the bridegroom and the bride with a goblet, or large glass, full of wine, ready blest for that purpose; after which, he takes off their crowns. Another prayer, accompanied with a proper benediction, and several compliments paid to the newly married couple, conclude the solemnity.

The observance of the following particular customs is looked upon amongst the Greeks as an indispensable obligation, and, in short, a fundamental article of their religion. If a priest, after the decease of his first wife, marries again, he forfeits his title to the priesthood, and is looked upon as a layman. If a layman marries a fourth wife, he is excluded from all communion with the Church. When a man has buried his third wife, there is no medium for him; he must either continue a lay-widower, or enter himself a member of some convent. The general reason assigned for this severe prohibition, is, that fourth marriages are absolute polygamy. The Greeks do not entertain the same idea of three subsequent marriages, because, by a most refined subterfuge and evasion, which is scarcely intelligible, they insist that polygamy consists of two copulatives, and that three marriages consist but of one plurality, and a unity. A much better reason for it is, however, assigned by Ricaut, which is, that this custom of the modern Greeks is grounded on the rigour of the ancient church, which checked and censured (in all probability too austere) all those who indulged themselves in any sensual enjoyments. Some of the primitive fathers were so strict, as not to make allowance for the natural constitution of man and the climate in which he lived, nor would they admit of any other circumstance, as a sufficient plea for indulgence.

The following are some preliminary marriage-ceremonies, observed by the Greeks at Athens. The young virgins never stir out of their houses before their wedding-day, and their gallants make love by proxy, or a third person, who has free access to them, and is some relation or particular acquaintance, in whose fidelity and friendship they can properly confide. The lover does not therefore so much as see his intended bride

till the day appointed for the solemnization of their nuptials. On that day, the bride is handed about in public for a long time, moving in a very slow and solemn pace. The procession between the church and the bridegroom's house occupies at least two hours, and is preceded by a select band of haut-boys, tabors, and other musical instruments. During this ceremony and the procession, the young virgins carry a large crown on their heads, composed of filigree work, decked with costly pearls, which is so cumbrous and troublesome, that they are obliged to walk as upright as an arrow. This public wedding would be looked upon with an eye of contempt if the parties were not painted, or rather daubed over in a very rude and inelegant manner.

A striking difference exists between the Greeks and the Latins, in regard to the manner of administering the *extreme unction*, and there are several ceremonies which belong peculiarly to the two unctions of the Greeks. The archbishop, or, in his absence, the bishop, consecrates, on Wednesday in holy week, the oil of unction for the whole year; and on Maundy-Thursday, the patriarch, or bishop, administers the unction publicly to all the faithful. The prelate is anointed first by the *Œconomist*, after which he himself anoints the whole congregation.

The other circumstances relating to the *unction* and *extreme unction* of the Greeks, which are peculiar to themselves, are, that the priest, after he has dipped his cotton, which is fastened to the end of a stick, into the sacred oils, anoints the penitent, or the sick person, in the form of a cross, upon the forehead, chin, cheeks, the upper side, and palms of the hands. After which he pronounces a short prayer. The seven assisting priests anoint all the sick persons, one after another. The principal lays the gospel upon his head, whilst the others lay their hands upon him.

The differences which have been observed between the unction of the Latins and that of the Greeks, consist in, that by the laws of the Latin Church one person alone may administer the Sacrament of *extreme unction*; whereas the administration of it, in the opinion of the Greeks, is irregular, unless three at least assist at the celebration of it. By the *Latin ritual*, the bishop only has authority to consecrate the oil; but the Grecian priests, as well as their prelates, are invested with that power. Independently of the parts of the body of their sick, which are differently anointed, it is customary with the Greeks to anoint their houses also, and to imprint upon them at the same time several signs of the cross.

On the decease of any person, the whole family appear like so many actors at the representation of a deep tragedy; all are in tears, and at the same time utter forth the most dismal groans. The body of the deceased, Funeral So-
lemnities. whether male or female, is dressed in its best apparel, and afterwards extended upon a bier, with one wax taper at the head, and another at the feet. The wife, if the husband be the object of their sorrow, the children, servants, relations, and acquaintance, enter the apartment in which the deceased is thus laid out, with their clothes rent, tearing their hair, beating their breast, and disfiguring their faces with their nails. When the body of the deceased is completely dressed, and decently extended on the bier, for the regular performance of his last obsequies, and the hour is arrived for his interment, the crucifix is carried in procession at the head of the funeral train. The priests and deacons who accompany them, reciting the prayers appointed by the church, burn incense, and implore the Divine Majesty to receive the soul of the deceased into his heavenly mansions. The wife follows his dear remains, drowned in a flood of tears, and so disconsolate that, if we might form a judgment from her tears, and the excess of her cries and lamentations, one would imagine she would instantly set her soul at liberty to fly after, and overtake her husband's. There are some women, however, to be met with, who have no taste for these extravagant testimonies of their grief and anguish, and yet their mourning is not less solemn than that of their neighbours. It is rather singular that the Greeks have women who are mourners by profession, who weep in the widow's stead for a certain sum; and by frequent practice of their art, can represent to the life all the violent emotions and gesticulations that naturally result from the most pungent and unfeigned sorrow.

As soon as the funeral service is over, they kiss the crucifix, and afterwards salute the mouth and forehead of the deceased. After that, each of them eats a small bit of bread, and drinks a glass of wine in the church, wishing the soul of the deceased a good repose, and the afflicted family all the consolation they can wish for. A widow who has lost her husband, a child who has lost his father or mother, in short all persons who are in deep mourning, dress no victuals at their own houses. The friends and relations of the deceased send them in provisions for the first eight days; at the end of which they pay the disconsolate family a charitable visit, in order to condole with, and comfort them under their unhappy loss, and to wait on them to the church, where prayers are read for the

repose of the soul of the deceased. The men again eat and drink in the church, whilst the women renew their cries and lamentations. But those who can afford to hire professed mourners, never undergo this second fatigue, but substitute proper persons in their stead, to weep over their husbands' tombs three days after their interment; at which time prayers are always read for the repose of his soul. After the ninth day, masses and prayers are again read upon the same occasion, which are repeated at the expiration of forty days; as also, at the close of six months, and on the last day of the year. After the ceremony is concluded, they make their friends a present of some corn, boiled rice, wine, and some sweetmeats. This custom, which is generally called by the Greeks, *Ta Sperna*, is looked upon by them as very ancient. They renew it with increased solemnity and devotion, on the Friday immediately preceding their Lent, that before Christmas, on Good Friday, and the Friday before Whitsuntide; which days the Greek Church have devoted to the service of the dead, not only of those who have departed this life according to the common course of nature, but those likewise who have unfortunately met with a sudden and untimely death.

There is no mass said for the dead on the days of their interment; but forty are said in every parish on the following day, at seven-pence per mass. As soon as they arrive in the church, the priests read aloud the service for the dead, whilst a young clerk repeats some particular Psalms of David at the foot of the bier. When the service is concluded, twelve loaves, and as many bottles of wine are, distributed amongst the poor at the church door. Every priest has ten gazettas, or Venetian pence, and the bishop who accompanies the corpse, three half crowns. The grand vicar, treasurer, and keeper of the archives, who are next to the prelate in point of dignity, have three crowns, or a double fee. After this distribution, one of the priests lays a large piece of broken pot upon the breast of the deceased, on which a cross, and the usual characters I. N. B. I., being the initials of four Greek words, signifying Jesus of Nazareth, King of the Jews, are engraved with the point of a penknife, or some other tool or instrument proper for that occasion. After that they withdraw and take their leave of the deceased. The relations kiss the lips; and this is looked upon as a duty so very imperative, that the neglect of it cannot be dispensed with, although the person died of the most infectious distemper.

Nine days afterwards, the *colyva* is sent to church; which,

according to the Greeks, is a large dish of boiled wheat, garnished with blanched almonds, raisins, pomegranates, sesame, and strewed round with sweet basil, and other odoriferous herbs. The middle of the dish is raised in a pyramidal form, adorned at top with a large bunch of Venetian artificial flowers; large lumps of sugar, or dried sweetmeats, are ranged, like Maltese crosses, all round the borders; and this is what the Greeks call *the oblation of the colyva*, which is established amongst them, in order that the true believer may commemorate the resurrection of the dead, according to those words of our blessed Saviour, recorded in St. John.—*Except a grain of wheat fall into the ground and die, it abideth alone: but if it die, it bringeth forth much fruit.* It must be acknowledged that true piety and devotion have contributed very much towards the establishment of this kind of ceremony; but it must be also allowed, that by a kind of fatality, which too frequently attends the most pious institutions, this, as well as other ceremonies of a similar nature, has degenerated into superstition. It is worthy of remark that this ceremony of the Grecian *colyva*, which is peculiar to their funeral solemnities, their ninth day's devotion, their quarantains, their anniversaries, and the days appointed for the commemoration of their dead, is also observed on their most solemn festivals. The comfits, or sweetmeats, and other fruits, are added merely to render their boiled wheat a little more palatable. The sexton, or grave-digger, carries this dish of *colyva* upon his head, preceded by an attendant with two large flambeaux made of wood and gilt, embellished with several rows of large ribands, and edged with lace, six inches deep. This grave-digger is followed by three other attendants, or waiters, one with two large bottles of wine in his hands, another loaded with two baskets full of fruits, and the third carrying a Turkish carpet, which is to be spread over the tomb of the deceased, and made use of as a table-cloth for their *colyva*, and their funeral entertainment.

The priest reads the service of the dead, during the time that this customary oblation is carried to church, and he is afterwards complimented with a large proportion of it: wine is abundantly served to every person of tolerable credit or repute, and the remainder is distributed amongst the poor. As soon as the oblation is carried out of doors, the hired mourners repeat their hideous outcries, the same as on the day of the interment, and the relations, friends, and acquaintance, likewise express their sorrow by a thousand ridiculous grimaces. The whole recompense which the hired mourners receive for

their flood of tears, is five loaves, two quarts of wine, half a cheese, a quarter of mutton, and fifteen pence in money. The relations are obliged, consistently with the custom of some particular places, to pay several visits to the tomb of the deceased, to weep over it, and, as an incontestable testimony of their unfeigned sorrow, they never change their clothes during the time of their mourning; the husbands never shave themselves, and the widows suffer themselves to be overrun with vermin. In some particular islands, the natives mourn constantly at home, and the widowers and widows never go to church, nor frequent the sacraments, whilst they are in mourning. The bishops and priests are sometimes obliged to compel them to attend church, under pain of excommunication, of which the Greeks have a more awful apprehension than of fire and sword.

The idea which the Greeks entertain of purgatory, is very dark and confused, and in general they leave the decision of eternal salvation or condemnation to the day of judgment. They are at a loss to fix and determine the place where the souls of the deceased reside till the final day of resurrection, and in this state of incertitude, they never omit to pray for them, hoping that God, of his infinite goodness, will incline his ear to their supplications.

The first, or lowest order of their priesthood is the lecturer, whose peculiar province is to read the sacred scriptures to the

Order and people on solemn festivals: from this station he is gradually advanced, first to be a chorister or their Priests. chanter, then subdeacon, whose office it is at mass to sing the epistle; and then he is ordained deacon, and sings the gospel. The last order is that of the priests, who are either seculars, or regulars.

According to the orders in the pontifical, when a person is to be ordained a priest, two deacons accompany him to the *sacred doors*, and there deliver him into the hands of the priests. The protopapas, and he who is next in dignity to him, lead him three times round the altar, singing the hymn of the martyrs. The candidate for the priesthood then kneels down, and the ordinant makes three times over his head the sign of the cross, repeats the prayers adapted to that particular occasion, and lays his hands upon him. In one of the prayers in particular, the ordinant enumerates the principal functions of a priest; viz. those of sacrificing, preaching the gospel, and administering the sacrament of baptism, &c. These prayers being concluded, he orders the new priest to rise, and puts the band of the horary, which hung down

behind, over his right shoulder. He then presents him with the epitrachelium, or the stole; and the *phelonium*, or the surplice; the choir singing during the whole of the time this ceremony is performing. A deacon afterwards pronounces the following exhortation, *Let us love one another*. Then the Patriarch kisses the altar; and each priest approaches the sacred table, in regular order, according to his rank and dignity, and not only kisses it, but also the patriarch's hand, which lies upon it, and then his cheek. The priests salute each other, and the deacons follow their example.

The priests wear a white woollen fillet behind their hats or caps, which hangs down upon their shoulders, and is called "peristera," that is to say, a *dove*; and is looked upon as an emblem or figure of the innocence and purity of the priesthood. The bishop moves this dove from any priest under his jurisdiction, who is proved guilty of any enormous offence; and the majority of them are so notoriously vicious, that very few can boast of wearing this badge of innocence for any long period of time.

At the ordination of a bishop, the priests deliver him into the hands of two prelates, who oblige him to make a formal procession round the altar, as in the preceding ordinations. After these preliminary ceremonies, the chartophylax, or archivist, delivers the contacium, which is a small collection of degrees, forms, &c. relating to the election of a bishop, to the patriarch, who takes it in his left hand, and lays his right on the candidate for the bishopric, in order to read the form of his election; after this lesson, he opens the book of the gospels, and lays it on the head of the candidate, all the assisting bishops laying their hands on the book at the same time: all these ceremonies are accompanied with several prayers which are suitable to the solemn occasion.

The prayers being over, the ordinant takes the book from the head of the bishop elect, and having deposited it on the altar, presents him with the *pallium*: this ceremony is accompanied with singing and with holy kisses.

The Greeks are, in general, an ignorant and superstitious people. Amongst their superstitious customs, the following may be included as some of the most extraordinary:—

Superstitious
Customs.

They attach a particular sanctity to some fountains, which they look upon as miraculous waters, especially when they are devoted to the service of any celebrated saint. This superstitious notion appears to be a true copy of a pagan original.

They think it a duty incumbent upon them to refrain from blood, and all meats that have been strangled; but notwithstanding this scruple of conscience, they are not very nice in regard to the kind of provisions which are set before them. If they be strict, however, in the observance of this custom, they are in that respect very nearly allied to the Jews.

They call the Nile the *Monarch of the Floods*; and are of opinion, that the overflowing of this river is a peculiar blessing, and an indulgence of the Almighty to Egypt, on account of our Saviour and the blessed Virgin having been sheltered and protected in that country from the persecutions of Herod.

Their art of physic, which is generally practised by empirics and ignorant pretenders, is accompanied by innumerable superstitions. The following may be adduced as a striking instance of the extent of their medical knowledge. When their patients' heads are so very much disordered as to cause delirium, they use the same means for their recovery as with a demoniac, or one possessed with the devil. The physician in this case ceases to prescribe for him; but his friends make an immediate application to an *exorcist*; that is, to one of their papas, who approaches the patient's bed-side, and not only reads several prayers over him, but sprinkles him with holy water. He pours likewise a plentiful quantity of it into the bed in which the patient lies, and, in short, sprinkles the room all over. The exorcisms ensue, and the papas in the most solemn manner, expel the imaginary demons. Conceit effects a cure which was supposed to be beyond the skill of the most able physician.

The Greeks are extremely fond of visiting their churches and chapels, especially such as are on precipices, and places very difficult of access; and, indeed, the principal part of their devotion consists in voluntary fatigues, which is, in their eyes, a kind of mortification of the flesh. On their first arrival at the church or chapel, they repeatedly cross themselves, and make a thousand genuflexions and profound bows. They kiss the image which is erected in it, and present it with three or four grains of the choicest frankincense; recommending themselves to the protection of the blessed Virgin, or to the saint whom the image represents; but in case the saint does not incline his ear, and hearken to their vows, they soon make him sensible of their resentment.

One of the greatest frauds engendered by superstition, is the urn of Amorgos, which is looked upon as the oracle of the Archipelago. It has this in common with the ancient oracles of Greece, that it is indebted to the artifice and roguery of the

priests for the fame of its predictions. This urn, which stands near a chapel consecrated to St. George, fills and disembogues itself several times in the course of a day, and sometimes within so small a period as half an hour, which is looked upon as a miracle, and ascribed to the prevailing influence and power of St. George. This is the very same St. George, who, at Scyros, flies at and seizes upon those impious persons who neglect to perform their vows. His image, according to traditionary report, lays violent hands on the delinquents, jumps upon their shoulders, and gives them many severe blows on the head and back, till they have discharged the duty incumbent on them. They see him sailing in the air, and frisking about from one place to another, till at last he settles upon the back of a blind monk, who carries him he knows not whither. Those who consult the urn of Amorgos before they engage in any affair of the last importance, are sure to prove unsuccessful if, upon their first approach, they find the water lower than ordinary. Father Richard assures us, that the islanders annually, at Easter, consult this urn of Amorgos, which, from its fulness or emptiness, presages a plentiful or a bad harvest.

There is a very particular custom observed in the island of Andros, the origin of which, however, has hitherto baffled the most rigid inquiry. At the procession on the festival of Corpus Christi, the bishop of the Romish Church, who carries the body of our blessed Saviour, tramples under foot all the Christians, of whatever sect they may be, who lie prostrate before him in the streets. The same custom is observed at Naxos, and the missionary who relates the story adds, that such as have any sick persons in their family, bring them out, in order to lie in the way of the blessed Sacrament; and the more they are trodden, the nearer they approach to convalescence.

The inhabitants of some parts of the island of Chios, are of opinion that a corpse, which is not corrupted in forty days, is transformed into a familiar spirit, or hobgoblin, which is very troublesome and impertinent, knocks at people's doors, and even calls them distinctly by their names. If any person presumes to answer to his call, they think he will most assuredly die in two or three days at furthest.

At Nicaria, near Samos, the inhabitants, who are all swimmers, will not marry their daughters to any but such young fellows who can dive eight fathoms deep at least. They are obliged to produce a certificate of their diving ability, and when a papa, or some substantial islander, is determined to dispose of his daughter in marriage, he appoints a day, when

the best swimmer is to bear away the prize. As soon as the candidates are all stripped naked, the young lady makes her personal appearance, and in they jump. He who continues longest under water is the fortunate bridegroom.

The Greeks of the Holy Land assert, and firmly believe it to be a real fact, that the birds which fly round about Jerusalem, never sing during passion week; but stand motionless and confounded almost all the time, testifying a sympathetic sorrow and compassion for the sufferings of our Saviour.

The *sacred fire* of the Greeks is a ceremony more superstitious than religious, a whimsical, merry custom, which is very justly a stumbling block and rock of offence to several serious Mahometans, instilling into their minds a most contemptible idea of the eastern Christians. In short, it is nothing but a piece of priestcraft, to cheat the too credulous pilgrims out of their money, by making them believe that, on Easter-eve, a fire descends from Heaven into the sacred sepulchre. The Turks are no strangers to this pious fraud, but connive at it, because it is very advantageous to them; and the patriarchs on their part declare that they could never pay their taxes, nor their tributes, if this stratagem, however unbecoming the practice of a Christian, should be discovered and exposed. Thevenot has given us the following description of this religious farce. "About eight in the morning the Greeks extinguish all their lamps, and those in the sacred sepulchre. Then they run about staring like persons distracted, bawling and making a hideous howling, without any regard or reverence to the sacred place. Every time they passed the holy sepulchre, they cried out, *Eleyson!* that is, 'Have mercy upon us!' It was very diverting to see them afterwards jump upon one another's backs, kicking one another's shins, and flogging each other on the shoulders with knotted cords. A whole crowd of them got together, and taking up some of their comrades in their arms, ran for some time with them round the sepulchre, until at last they threw them down in the dirt, and laughed till they hallooed again at their own unlucky gambols. Those, on the other hand, who had thus been made the laughing stocks of the crowd, ran in their turn after the others, in order to be equally mischievous, and to revenge themselves for the affront which they had received; in short, they all acted like a set of idle fools and merry-andrews. Every now and then they would lift up their eyes to Heaven, and hold up their wax-tapers, with outstretched arms, *as if they implored the Almighty to send down his celestial fire to light them.* After this folly and extravagance had continued till about three o'clock in the

evening, two archbishops, and two Greek bishops, dressed in their patriarchal robes and coifs, marched out of the choir, attended by the clergy, and began their procession round the sepulchre: the Armenians likewise attended, with their clergy, followed by the Coptan bishop. After they had taken three solemn tours around the sepulchre, a Greek bishop came out of the Chapel of the Angel, which is at the entrance of the sepulchre, and informed the individual who personated the Patriarch of Jerusalem, that the sacred fire had descended from heaven. He then entered the Holy Sepulchre with a large bundle of wax-tapers in each hand, and after him the prelate, who represented the Armenian Patriarch, and the bishop of the Copti. Some short time afterwards, the Greek archbishop came out in a very whimsical posture, marching with his eyes cast upon the ground, and both his hands full of lighted wax-tapers. As soon as he appeared, the mob crowded upon one another's shoulders, each pressed forwards, kicking one, and boxing another, to reach the prelate, for the purpose of lighting his taper by that which he held in his hand; because that fire which comes immediately from his, is looked upon to be the purest and most holy. In the mean time the Janizaries, who were the guards of the sepulchre, dealt their blows indiscriminately about them, to make room for the archbishop, who used his utmost endeavours to get clear of the crowd. At last he came to a stone altar, which stood before the door of the choir, and opposite that of the holy sepulchre. Immediately the populace flocked round about him for some of his sacred fire; but those who had lighted their tapers, in their endeavours to retreat, were overpowered by others, who very devoutly struck them with their fists, and took away the fire that had cost them so much labour and fatigue to procure: in short the gravest of them all threw down and trampled their neighbours under foot, to get close to the prelate. At last, the Greek archbishop withdrew, and the Armenian bishop retired to the church of the Armenians, and the Coptan bishop to that of the Copti. In the mean time, the Turks, who kept the door of the holy sepulchre, permitted none to enter but those who paid for lighting their wax tapers at the lamps of that sanctuary, as those lamps are the first that are touched by the sacred fire. In a few minutes after, the church was illuminated with above two thousand branches of blazing torches, whilst the numerous congregation, hooting like madmen, began to repeat their former frolics. A man, with a drum at his back, ran with all imaginable speed round

the sacred sepulchre, and another ran after him, and drummed upon it with two sticks ; when he was tired, a third supplied his place. Devotion, or rather custom, enjoins the Greeks not to eat nor drink that day, till they have received the sacred fire."

Some ascribe the origin of this superstition to a real miracle, which they pretend was formerly wrought in the presence of the whole congregation on Easter-eve, in the church belonging to the holy sepulchre. The Almighty sent down celestial flame into this divine monument, which kindled or lighted again all the lamps, which by the orders of the Church are extinguished in passion week, and thereby indulged them with new fire. Every one was an eye-witness of the descent of this new flame from heaven, which darted from one place to another, and kindled every lamp and taper that was extinguished. It is added also, that the Almighty, being provoked at the irregularities and disorders of the Christian Crusades, refused to work this miracle one Easter-eve, when they were assembled together in the most solemn manner, to be spectators of the descent of his celestial fire ; but that at last, he vouchsafed to have mercy on them, and incline his ear to their fervent prayers, and repeated supplications. The descent of this holy fire continued for seven hundred and fifty years after the time of St. Jerome ; but since that period, it has, owing to some reason not easily defined, been wholly discontinued : the most probable conjecture is, that the whole fraud was discovered, and an end was consequently put to the enactment of this religious farce.

This ceremony of the sacred fire, which is so whimsical and extravagant, and so unbecoming the practice of a Christian, has introduced another superstitious custom very conformable to its romantic original. In this same church of the Holy Sepulchre, there are some men and women, who have several pieces of linen cloth lying before them, which they mark from one end to the other with a cross, made by the tapers kindled at the sacred fire. Thus marked, they serve for the shrouds or winding sheets of these good devotees, and are reserved for that solemn purpose, as the most sacred relics.

Amongst the superstitious customs of the Greeks, may be included the marks, which the pilgrims imprint upon their arms, and which they take care to produce as a certificate of their pilgrimage to Jerusalem. These marks are made with some particular wooden moulds, filled with charcoal-dust, and afterwards pressed hard upon the arm. As soon as the part is thus stamped, it is pricked with an instrument full of needles ; it is then bound up, and a scurf or scab generally rises upon

the place, which falls off again in about two or three days; but the blue impression remains ever after.

There is a stone still to be seen not far from Bethlehem, which is perfectly white, and which colour we are told is owing to the extraordinary virtue of the Blessed Virgin's milk. The Greeks assure us, that this stone will infallibly fill a woman's breast with milk; and even the Turks themselves, and the Arabians, are so strongly rivetted to the same belief, that they oblige their wives, who have sucking infants at their breasts, to take a little of the powder of this stone infused in water, in order that the above-mentioned desirable effect may be produced. Mount Sinai, Mount Horeb, the frontiers of the Holy Land, the Holy Land itself, in short, all the countries from the Red Sea to Jerusalem, are, as it were, so many sources which have immemorially supplied the Greeks with fictions, and their bigots with superstition. Upon Mount Horeb the Greeks pretend to show the place in which the prophet Jeremiah concealed the tables of the law, and a particular stone, on which are several Hebrew characters, carved by the prophet himself. According to this idea, they pay to this stone a superstitious homage, which consists of a number of prayers and innumerable signs of the cross, performed with the utmost hurry and precipitation, and consequently with very little zeal or devotion.

The Greeks ascribe to the waters of Jordan, and almost all the fountains of the Holy Land, the supernatural virtue of healing several distempers. The plant generally known by the name of the *Rose of Jericho*, is in their opinion a sure defence against thunder and lightning, and a speedy relief for a woman in the time of her travail. A certain traveller, *Morison*, assures us, with an extraordinary air of piety and devotion, that this last quality is owing to the Blessed Virgin, of whom *that vegetable is the figure or representation*.

SEC. II.—RELIGIOUS PRINCIPLES AND CUSTOMS OF THE RUSSIAN GREEK CHURCH.

It is impossible perhaps to settle with any certainty at what period, or by whom, Christianity was first introduced into Russia. What we learn with most appearance of probability is, that the Grand Duchess *Olga*, of Christianity or, as her name is pronounced, *Olha*, grandmother to Wladimir, was the first person of distinction converted to Christianity in Russia, about the year 955, and that she assumed the name of *Helena*, at her conversion; under which

name she still stands as a saint in the Russian calendar. Methodius, and Cyril the philosopher, travelled from Greece into Moravia, about the year 900, to plant the gospel; where they translated the service of the church, or some parts of it, from the Greek into the Sclavonian language, the common language, at that time, of Moravia and Russia; and thus it is thought that this princess imbibed the first principles of Christianity. And, being herself fully persuaded of its truth, she was very earnest with her son, the Grand Duke *Sviatoslav*, to embrace it also; but this, from political motives, he declined to do. In the course, however, of a few years, Christianity is said to have made considerable progress in that nation.

It is fully ascertained that, about the end of the tenth century, the Christian religion was introduced into Russia, chiefly through their connexion with Greece; and coming from this quarter, it was very natural that the doctrine and discipline of the church of Constantinople, should become at first the pattern of the church of Russia, which it still continues to follow in the greatest part of its offices. Hence likewise the patriarch of Constantinople formerly enjoyed the privilege of a spiritual supremacy over the Russians, to whom he sent a Metropolitan whenever a vacancy happened.

Little occurred in the ecclesiastical history of Russia, except perhaps the rise of the sect of the *Raskolniki*, which excited considerable tumults and commotions in that kingdom, till Peter the Great ascended the throne of Russia; who, in the beginning of the eighteenth century, made some remarkable changes in the form and administration both of its civil and ecclesiastical government.

This great prince made no change in the articles of faith received among his countrymen, which contain the doctrine of the Greek church; but he took the utmost pains to have this doctrine explained in a manner conformable to the dictates of right reason, and the spirit of the gospel; and he used the most effectual methods to destroy, on the one hand, the influence of that hideous superstition that sat brooding over the whole nation; and, on the other, to dispel the ignorance of the clergy, which was incredible, and that of the people, which would have surpassed it, had that been possible.

To crown these noble attempts, he extinguished the spirit of persecution, and renewed and confirmed to Christians, of all denominations, liberty of conscience, and the privilege of performing divine worship in the manner prescribed by their respective liturgies and institutions. This liberty, however, was modified in such a manner, as to restrain and defeat any

attempts that might be made by the Jesuits and other members of the church of Rome, to promote the interests of Popery in Russia, or to extend the jurisdiction of the Roman pontiff beyond the chapels of that communion that were tolerated by law; and particular charge was given to the council, to which belonged the cognizance of ecclesiastical affairs, to use their utmost care and vigilance to prevent the propagation of Romish tenets among the people. All this caution had, no doubt, arisen from the repeated efforts of the designing pontiffs of Rome and their missionaries to extend the papal empire over the Greek churches, under the pretence of uniting the two communions; and, with this view, a negotiation was entered into in 1580, under *John Basilides*, Grand Duke of Russia, who seems to have had political ends to answer in pretending to favour this union. But, although the professed object of this negotiation failed, the ministry of *Possevin*, the learned and artful Jesuit, who was charged with the mission on the part of the Roman pontiff, was not without fruit among the Russians, especially among those residing in the Polish dominions.

Proposals for uniting the two communions have been made by different popes, as *Honorius III.*, *Gregory IX.*, *Innocent IV.*, *Gregory XIII.*, and last of all, by the Academy of *Sorbonne* in 1718; but the Russian sovereigns and the nation have always remained firm and true to their religion: at the same time, all religions, without exception, are tolerated in Russia. In the year 1581, in the reign of Czar *John Vasilievitz*, Pope *Gregory XIII.*, proposed to that sovereign that the Lutheran clergy should be banished from Russia; but he was answered, that *in that country all nations have a free exercise of their religions*; and now in Russia there are Lutherans, Calvinists, *Hernhutters*, Armenians, Jews, Mahometans, Pagans, Hindoos, &c. &c. Roman Catholics are to be met with in almost every government, particularly in those conquered from the Polish dominions: their clergy are governed by their own rulers, and are totally independent of the Russian ecclesiastical jurisdiction.

Peter likewise introduced a considerable change into the manner of governing the church. The splendid dignity of patriarch, which approached too near the lustre and prerogatives of majesty, not to be offensive to the emperor and burdensome to the people, was suppressed, in 1721, by this spirited monarch, who declared himself (and thus became, like the British monarch) head of the national church.

The functions of this high and important office were entrusted

ed with a council assembled at St. Petersburg, which was called the *Holy Synod*; and one of the archbishops, the most distinguished by his integrity and prudence, was appointed as president of it.

The other orders of the clergy continued in their respective rank and offices; but both their revenues and their authority were considerably diminished. It was resolved at first, in this general reformation, to abolish all monasteries and convents, as prejudicial to the public, and unfriendly to population; but this resolution was not put in execution; on the contrary, the emperor himself erected a magnificent monastery in honour of *Alexander Newsky*, whom the Russians place in the list of their heroes and saints.*

In her doctrines, the Russian Church agrees with the Greek Church; like her, she receives the seven sacraments or mysteries; allows no statues or graven images, but admits pictures and invocation of saints.

During the celebration of the mass, the laity, not excepting the prince himself, are obliged either to stand or to kneel, and be uncovered; and to observe the same position during the performance of all the other parts of divine service. *Bergius*; in his *State of the Russian Church*, assures us, however, that "The ancient Russians always pray either standing, or prostrate upon the ground; carefully avoiding the posture of kneeling, for fear they should be thought to imitate those soldiers who mocked the Lord JESUS CHRIST." The Grand Duke, who sat on the throne in the time of Olearius, always prostrated himself to the ground when he attended public worship. For this reason there are no stools nor benches made use of in the Russian churches, except when there happens to be a homily read, or a sermon preached. No dogs are suffered to enter the church door; and every thing which has the least tendency to interrupt their devotions is prohibited. None but those who officiate at the altar are admitted into the sanctuary. The Czar, however, is allowed to enter it at the ceremony of his coronation, and when he receives the communion; some others of the laity, who are persons of distinction, are likewise admitted into it, provided they take care to keep at a great distance from the altar.

The Russian mass is always performed in the ancient Slavonian language; and a great part of it is said in a low voice. Like the Greeks, the Russians bow down before the host, and

* All Religions.

adore it. From the preface of the mass to the communion, the doors of the sanctuary are shut, and a curtain is drawn before it, which covers the altar: in Easter-week, however, the sanctuary doors are always open, even during mass. To the other ceremonies observed at the communion, in conformity with those of the Greeks, we must add, according to Olearius, that the Muscovites administer the sacrament to those who are deprived of their reason, by touching their lips only with the bread dipped in the wine; that they are not allowed to give the communion to a woman who lies in, in the room where she was brought to bed;—those who have taken a false oath before a court of judicature, or have been guilty of any notorious crime, cannot receive this sacrament of the Eucharist, till they are at the point of death; and that it is customary to give those who are sick, some water or some brandy, in which several of their sacred relics have been first infused, before they give them the communion.

Their Bible is translated into the Slavonian language from the Greek Septuagint; but they never suffer it to be carried into church, for fear of profaning it by the several immodest passages that are to be met with in the Old Testament. It is the New Testament only, and some particular passages extracted from the Psalms and the Prophets, which are read in their churches; they are, however, allowed to read the whole scriptures at home in private.

In Father Lè Brun's *Collection of Liturgies*, we find the contents of a small Muscovite ritual, in which directions are laid down for the observance of the following customs: 1. Several prayers to be read on the day that a woman is delivered of a male-infant. 2. On the eighth day after the birth of such infant, being the day on which he is to receive his name. 3. On the fortieth day after her lying-in. 4. For a woman that has miscarried. 5. At an exorcism. 6. At a reconciliation in Church. 7. On a divorce. 8. When the communion is to be administered to the sick. 9. Prayers to JESUS CHRIST, and the Blessed Virgin, for a true believer at the point of death. 10. The order or method to be observed at the burial of such persons who die during the festival of Easter, or in Holy week. 11. For a priest after his decease. 12. For the burial of an infant. 13. Prayers for a blessing on the provisions made for Easter; for their cheese and eggs; for their first fruits, and those who offer them; for the consecration of a house, and the entering into possession of it; for sinking a well, and the purification of it when any filth has fallen into it. 14. Prayers for those who have eaten any unclean meats.

15. Prayers for the purification of an unclean vessel. 16. For all sorts of grain; for seed-time, &c. It is presumed that the foregoing will be sufficient to give the reader a tolerable idea of the several customs which are observed by the Russians on particular occasions, and the observance of which is especially enjoined by their ritual.

One peculiar custom, however, we cannot omit; viz. that when they take possession of a house, they consecrate it at the same time with salt. Cornelius le Brun, in his *Travels to Muscovy*, gives us the following account of the consecration of the Czar's palace, in 1702. "The floor was strewed all over with hay, and on the right hand a table was placed, garnished out with abundance of large and little loaves; over some of them was thrown a handful of salt, and a silver salt-cellar, full of salt, set upon others." This custom of consecrating with salt, which is attended by all friends and relatives, is repeated for several days together, and is an emblem or token of that prosperity and success which they wish may attend them, and of their friendly hope that they may never afterwards want any of the necessaries of life. When they quit their habitations, they leave some hay and bread upon the floor, which are symbols of those blessings which they wish may attend those who take the house after their departure.

The constitution of the Russian monks, their fasts, and their profound ignorance, are much the same as those of the Greek monks. Peter the Great was the first who attempted to lay a duty, or tax, upon the convents; he commanded that no persons should be admitted into them but those who were fifty years of age, or upwards, he having observed that a considerable number of able young fellows were shut up in them, and thereby rendered useless to the state.

The Russians have a peculiar regard for relics, images, and pictures of saints;—for the invocation of saints, the crucifix, and the sign of the cross; for an infinite number of inclinations, genuflexions, and prostrations, not only before those objects which are adorable, but those likewise which demand only a common reverence and esteem; and also for numberless processions and pilgrimages. The cathedral church at Moscow is in possession of the garment of Jesus Christ, and a picture of the Blessed Virgin, drawn by St. Luke! The Russians look upon this picture, as the palladium of their state. Other churches boast of being possessed of the bodies of several Russian saints; and thirty-six gold and silver shrines, full of very valuable relics, are to be seen in the church of the

Relics, Images, &c.

Annunciation. These shrines, or boxes, are said to contain, amongst other things, some of the precious blood of the Lord Jesus Christ; one of the hands of St. Mark, and some of the bones of the prophet Daniel, &c.

Their images or pictures, which are generally painted in oil upon wood, must be made by some Muscovite, and are sold, or, according to their prevaricating phraseology, exchanged or bartered for a certain sum of money. To sell them is looked upon as a sin: but in the time of Olearius, the patriarch would not suffer any foreigners to have them in their houses for fear they should profane them. This precaution was carried to so high a pitch, that a Dutchman having purchased a house that was built with stone, the Russian who sold it scraped the wall on which the picture of a saint had been painted, and carried the rubbish off the premises.

Every Russian, whether his condition be high or low, has his own titular saint, to whom he offers up his morning and evening prayers, and whom he neglects not to consult on all occasions of a doubtful or hazardous nature. In the shops at St. Petersburg, an image of this titular saint is always placed in a conspicuous position, and you cannot possibly pay a higher compliment to a Russian than in entering his shop to make your obeisance to his favourite saint. A Russian shop keeper is a notorious cheat, but if you have paid a becoming respect to his saint, it is supposed that you are immediately admitted into his good graces, and although the majority of the saints were themselves the most consummate cheats and impostors, yet it is believed that they do not sanction similar practices in others. For this reason, a familiar nod or a polite bow to a Russian image becomes, in many instances, a positive act of good policy, for you thereby stand a good chance of escaping from the cheating and exorbitant demands of the Russian trader.

The walls of their churches are all covered with pictures, which are not only representations of JESUS CHRIST, and the Blessed Virgin, but of St. Nicholas, and several other saints, whom the Russians have made choice of for their patrons and protectors. In all their houses, a picture of some favourite saint is hung near one of the windows, with a wax-taper before it: several are likewise hung up in the streets, as objects of public devotion; but the majority of the latter, according to Carlisle, are secured in glass-cases, and exposed to public view, either on the city gates or the church-doors; or they are suspended on some cross-road. If a Russian be in the greatest

haste, he must pay his respects to the pictures of these saints : not in a transient, careless manner, but he must stop a minute or two, to put up a short ejaculation ; standing bare-headed, making half-a-dozen profound bows, and as many crosses. The first thing that must be done, when any one enters a Russian's apartment, is to take notice of the picture of his saint, making the sign of the cross, at the same time repeating the *Hospodi*, (*Lord have mercy upon us*.) and bowing before it ; after that he pays his compliments to the master of the house. Amongst the poorer sort, with whom the pictures of their saints are generally situated in some dark hole or corner, without any wax-taper, or the least outward appearance of distinction or respect ; the devout Russian, for fear he should be in any way deficient in the discharge of his duty, never fails to ask where the *God* is, that is to say, the picture of the saint. This religious respect is grounded on that divinity, which the Russians ascribe to their images, and on the numberless miracles which they believe to have been wrought by them. However, this supernatural power does not hinder these images from falling to decay : and in such cases they inter them in their church-yards, or in their gardens : sometimes indeed they put them, with much care and reverence, into some rapid stream, that the current may carry them away ; for to throw them in would be looked upon as an act of disrespect.

The invocation of saints constitutes a considerable part of the religious worship of the Russians ; but greater demonstrations of respect are shown to St. Nicholas than to any of the rest. It is customary, in Russia, to mention *God* and the *Czar* at the same time, when they have any affair of importance to transact : thus, they frequently say, *God is powerful as well as the Czar. With God and the Czar's permission.* But they often substitute St. Nicholas in the room of Providence ; as for instance, when any one asks them how long they intend to be on a journey, they will answer, *as long as St. Nicholas shall think convenient.* Their devotees go in pilgrimage, for the most part, to those places where their saints have especially distinguished themselves. The Czars themselves are not excused or exempted from these religious peregrinations ; at least they were performed by the predecessors of Peter the Great.

A number of ceremonies and superstitious customs among the Russians, nearly equals that of the Romish Church. A few of these we shall notice ; and first we will describe a singular festival which the Russians

Benediction
of Waters.

call the Benediction of the Waters. This solemnity is celebrated at the beginning of the year at Petersburg, in the following manner: on the river *Neva*, upon the ice, which is then strong in that country, there is erected for this ceremony, a kind of temple of wood, usually of an octagonal figure, painted and richly gilt, having the inside decorated with various sacred pictures, representing the baptism of our Saviour, his transfiguration, and some other parts of his life, and on the top a picture of St. John the Baptist. This is called the *Jordan*, which name used to signify the baptistry or font, or any basin in which holy water is consecrated. There the attention of the spectators is drawn to a large emblem of the *Holy Ghost*, appearing to descend from heaven, a decoration common to almost all Greek churches, in which a *peristerion*, or dove, as a symbol of the Holy Ghost, is usually suspended from four small columns which support a canopy over the *Holy Table*. The *Jordan* is surrounded by a temporary hedge of the boughs of fir-trees; and, in the middle of the sanctuary or chancel is a square space, where the broken ice leaves a communication with the water running below, and the rest is ornamented with rich tapestry. Around this temple a kind of gallery is erected, and a platform of boards, covered with red cloth, is laid for the procession to go upon, guarded also by a fence of boughs. The gallery communicates with one of the windows of the imperial palace, at which the emperor and his family come out to attend the ceremony, which begins as soon as the liturgy is finished in the chapel of the imperial palace, and the regiments of guards have taken post on the river. Then, at the sound of the bells, and of the artillery of the fortress, the clerks, the deacons, the priests, the archimandrites, and the bishops, dressed in their richest robes, carrying in their hands lighted tapers, the censer, the Gospel, and the sacred pictures and banners, proceed from the chapel to the *Jordan*, singing the hymns appointed in the office, and followed by the emperor, the grand duke, the senators, and the whole court.

When arrived at the place where the ice is broken, the archbishop of Moscow, or other officiating bishop, descends, by means of a ladder, to the side of the water. There he reads the prayers appointed in the office,—dips his cross three times, and ends the ceremony by an exhortation appropriate to it; and the waters are then thought to be blessed. As soon as the service is finished, the artillery and soldiers fire; after which the prelate sprinkles the water on the company around him, and on the colours of all the regiments that happen to be at Petersburg, which are planted round the *Jordan*. He

then retires, when the people crowd towards the hole, and drink of the waters with a holy avidity. "Notwithstanding the cold, the mothers plunge their infants, and the old men their heads into them. Every body makes it a duty to carry away some for the purification of their houses, and curing certain distempers, against which the good Russians pretend this holy water is a powerful specific."

No people observe Lent with more scrupulous and excessive rigour than the Russians. Travelling the road from Petersburg to Moscow, says Dr. Clarke, in his travels, if at any time, in poor cottages, where the peasants appeared starving, I offered them a part of our dinner, they would shudder at the sight of it, and cast it to the dogs; dashing out of their children's hands, as an abomination, any food given to them; and removing every particle that might be left, entirely from their sight. In drinking tea with a Cossack, he not only refused to have milk in his cup, but would not use a spoon that had been in the tea offered him with milk, although wiped carefully in a napkin, until it had passed through scalding water. The same privation prevails among the higher ranks; but, in proportion as this rigour has been observed, so much the more excessive is the degree of gluttony and relaxation, when the important intelligence that "*Christ is risen*" has issued from the mouth of the archbishop. During Easter, they run into every kind of excess, rolling about drunk the whole week; as if rioting, debauchery, extravagance, gambling, drinking, and fornication, were as much a religious observance, as starving had been before; and that the same superstition which kept them fasting during Lent, had afterwards instigated them to the most beastly excesses.

Even their religious customs are perfectly adapted to their climate and manners. Nothing can be contrived with more ingenious policy to suit the habits of the Russians. When Lent fasting begins, their stock of frozen provisions is either exhausted, or unfit for use; and the interval which takes place allows sufficient time for procuring, killing, and storing, the fresh provisions of the spring. The night before the famous ceremony of the resurrection, all the markets and shops of Moscow, are seen filled with flesh, butter, eggs, poultry, pigs, and every kind of viand. The crowd of purchasers is immense. You hardly meet a foot-passenger who has not his hands, nay his arms, filled with provisions; or a single *droski* that is not ready to break down beneath their weight.

The first ceremony which took place, previous to all this feasting, was that of the *Paque fleuries*, or Palm Sunday. On

the eve of this day, all the inhabitants of Moscow resort, in carriages, on horseback, or on foot, to the Kremlin, for the purchase of palm-branches, to place before their boughs, and to decorate the sacred pictures in the streets, or elsewhere. It is one of the gayest promenades of the year. The governor, attended by the *maitre de police*, the commandant, and a train of nobility, go in procession mounted on fine horses. The streets are lined by spectators; and cavalry are stationed on each side, to preserve order. Arriving in the Kremlin, a vast assembly, bearing artificial *bouquets* and boughs, are seen moving here and there, forming the novel and striking spectacle of a gay and moving forest. The boughs consist of artificial flowers, with fruit. Beautiful representations of oranges and lemons in wax are sold for a few *copeeks** each, and offer a proof of the surprising ingenuity of this people in the arts of imitation. Upon this occasion, every person who visits the Kremlin, and would be thought a true Christian, purchases one or more of the boughs, called Palm-branches; and in returning, the streets are crowded with *droskis*, and all kinds of vehicles, filled with devotees, holding in their hands one or more palm-branches, according to the degree of their piety, or the number of boughs in their houses.

The description often given of the splendour of the equipages in Moscow, but ill agrees with their appearance during Lent. A stranger, who arrives, with his head full of notions of Asiatic pomp, and eastern magnificence, would be surprised to find narrow streets, execrably paved, covered by mud or dust; wretched looking houses on each side; carriages, drawn it is true, by six horses, but such cattle! blind, lame, old, out of condition, of all sizes and all colours, connected by rotten ropes and old cords, full of knots and splices: on the leaders and on the box, figures that seem to have escaped from the galleys; behind, a lousy, ragged lackey, or perhaps two, with countenances exciting more pity than derision; and the carriage itself like the worst of the night-coaches in London. But this external wretchedness, as far as it concerns the equipages of the nobles, admits of some explanation. The fact is, that a dirty, tattered livery, a rotten harness, bad horses, and a shabby vehicle, constitute one part of the privation of the season. On Easter Monday the most gaudy but fantastic buffoonery of splendour fills every street in the city. The emperor, it is true, in his high consideration for the welfare and happiness of his subjects, deemed it

* The copeek equals in value an English halfpenny.

expedient to adapt the appearance to the reality of their wretchedness: and in restraining the excessive extravagance of the people of Moscow, evinced more wisdom, than the world have given him credit for possessing.

The second grand ceremony of this season takes place on Thursday before Easter at noon, when the archbishop washes the feet of the apostles. This we also witnessed. The priests appeared in their most gorgeous apparel. Twelve monks, designed to represent the twelve apostles, were placed in a semicircle before the archbishop. The ceremony is performed in the cathedral, which is crowded with spectators. The archbishop, performing all and much more than is related of our Saviour in the thirteenth chapter of St. John, takes off his robes, girds up his loins with a towel, and proceeds to wash the feet of them all, until he comes to the representative of Peter, who rises; and the same interlocution takes place between him and the archbishop, which is said to have taken place between our Saviour and that apostle.

The third, and most magnificent ceremony of all, is celebrated two hours after midnight, in the morning of Easter Sunday. It is called the ceremony of the resurrection, and certainly exceeded every thing of the kind celebrated at Rome, or any where else. I have not seen so splendid a sight in any Roman Catholic country; not even that of the benediction by the pope during the holy week.

At midnight the great bell of the cathedral tolled. Its vibrations seemed the rolling of distant thunder; and they were instantly accompanied by the noise of all the bells in Moscow. Every inhabitant was stirring, and the rattling of carriages in the streets was greater than at noonday. The whole city was in a blaze; for lights were seen in all the windows, and innumerable torches in the streets. The tower of the cathedral was illuminated from its foundation to its cross. The same ceremony takes place in all the churches; and, what is truly surprising, considering their number, it is said they are all equally crowded.

We hastened to the cathedral, which was filled with a prodigious assembly of all ranks and sexes, bearing lighted wax tapers, to be afterwards heaped as vows on the different shrines. The walls, ceilings, and every part of this building, is covered by the pictures of saints and martyrs. In the moment of our arrival the doors were shut; and on the outside appeared Plato, the archbishop, preceded by banners and torches and followed by all his train of priests with crucifixes and censers, who were making three times, in procession,

the tour of the cathedral; chaunting with loud voices, and glittering in sumptuous vestments, covered by gold, silver, and precious stones. The snow had not melted so rapidly in the Kremlin as in the streets of the city; and this magnificent procession was therefore constrained to move upon planks over the deep mud which surrounded the cathedral. After completing the third circuit, they all halted opposite the great doors, which were shut; and the archbishop, with a censer, scattered incense against the doors, and over the priests. Suddenly those doors were opened, and the effect was beyond description great. The immense throng of spectators within, bearing innumerable tapers, formed two lines, through which the archbishop entered, advancing with his train to a throne near the centre. The profusion of lights in all parts of the cathedral, and, among others, of the enormous chandelier which hung from the centre, the richness of the dresses, and the vastness of the assembly, filled us with astonishment. Having joined the suite of the archbishop, we accompanied the procession, and passed even to the throne, on which the police officers permitted us to stand, among the priests, near an embroidered stool of satin, placed for the archbishop. The loud chorus, which burst forth at the entrance to the church, continued as the procession moved towards the throne, and after the archbishop had taken his seat; when my attention was, for a moment, called off, by seeing one of the Russians earnestly crossing himself with his right hand, while his left was employed in picking my companion's pocket of his handkerchief.

Soon after, the archbishop descended, and went all round the cathedral; first offering incense to the priests, and then to the people, as he passed along. When he had returned to his seat, the priests, two by two, performed the same ceremony; beginning with the archbishop, who rose and made obeisance with a lighted taper in his hand. From the moment the church doors were opened, the spectators had continued bowing their heads, and crossing themselves; insomuch that some of the people seemed really exhausted, by the constant motion of the head and hands.

I had now leisure to examine the dresses and figures of the priests, which were certainly the most striking I ever saw. Their long dark hair, without powder, fell down in ringlets, or strait and thick, far over their rich robes and shoulders. Their dark thick beards also, entirely covered their breasts. On the heads of the archbishop and bishops were high caps, covered with gems, and adorned by miniature paintings set in

jewels, of the crucifixion, the virgin, and the saints. Their robes of various coloured satin, were of the most costly embroidery, and even on these were miniature pictures set with precious stones.

Such, according to the consecrated legend of ancient days, was the appearance of the high-priests of old, Aaron and his sons, holy men standing by the temple of the congregation in fine raiments, the workmanship of "Bezaleel, the son of Uri, the son of Hur, of the tribe of Judah." It is said there is a convent in Moscow where the women are entirely employed in working dresses for the priests.

After two hours had been spent in various ceremonies, the archbishop advanced, holding forth a cross, which all the people crowded to embrace, squeezing each other nearly to suffocation. As soon, however, as their eagerness had been somewhat satisfied, he retired to the sacristy; where putting on a plain purple robe, he again advanced, exclaiming three times, in a very loud voice: *Christ is risen!*

The most remarkable part of the solemnity now followed. The archbishop, descending into the body of the church, concluded the whole ceremony by crawling round the pavement on his hands and knees, kissing the consecrated pictures, whether on the pillars, the walls, the altars, or the tombs; the priests and all the people imitating his example. Sepulchres were opened, and the mummied bodies of incorruptible saints exhibited, all of which underwent the same general kissing.

Thus was Easter proclaimed; and riot and debauchery instantly broke loose. The inn in which we lodged became a pandemonium. Drinking, dancing, and singing, continued through the night and day. But, in the midst of all these excesses, quarrels hardly ever took place. The wild rude riot of a Russian populace is full of humanity. Few disputes are heard; no blows are given; no lives endangered, but by drinking. No meetings take place of any kind, without repeating the expressions of peace and joy, *Christos voscress!* Christ is risen! to which the answer is always the same, *Vo istiney voscress!* He is risen indeed!

On Easter Monday begins the presentation of the paschal eggs: lovers to their mistresses, relatives to each other, servants to their masters, all bring ornamented eggs. Every offering, at this season, is called a paschal egg. The meanest pauper in the street, presenting an egg, and repeating the words *Christos voscress*, may demand a salute, even of the empress. All business is laid aside: the upper ranks are

engaged in visiting, balls, dinners, suppers, and masquerades; while boors fill the air with their songs, or roll drunk about the streets. Servants appear in new and tawdry liveries; and carriages in the most sumptuous parade.*

The form of baptism amongst the Russians is so singular that we must give a particular description of it. As soon as an infant comes into the world, the parents send immediately for a priest to purify him. Baptism.

This purification extends to all those who are present at the ceremony. They baptise their infants, according to Olearius, as soon as they are born; but according to other historians, those who are in good circumstances are not so strict, but defer the ceremony for some time. The godfathers and godmothers of the first child must stand sureties for all the other children in that family, however great may be the number. After entering the church, these godfathers deliver nine wax tapers into the hands of the priest, who illumines them all, and sticks them in the form of a cross about the font or vessel in which the infant is to be baptized. The priest then thurifies the godfathers, and consecrates the water; and after that he and the godfathers go thrice in procession round it. The clerk, who marches in the front, carries the picture of St. John. After this, they all arrange themselves in such a manner that their backs are turned towards the font, as a testimony, says Olearius, of their aversion to the three questions which the priest proposes to the godfathers; that is to say, 1st, "Whether the child renounces the devil? 2dly, Whether he abjures his angels? and, 3dly, Whether he abhors and detests their impious works?"—At each question, the godfathers answer *yes*, and spit upon the ground. The exorcism follows, which is performed out of the church, lest the devil, as he comes out of the infant, should pollute or profane it.

After the exorcism is over, the priest cuts some hair off the child's head in the form of a cross, and puts it into a book, or wraps it up in wax, and deposits it in some particular place belonging to the church appropriated for that purpose. The baptism which ensues is performed by a triple immersion, as we have before observed with respect to the Greeks. The priest having now put a grain of salt into the infant's mouth, anoints him several times in the form of a cross, which may properly enough be called his *confirmation*; and as he puts on him a clean shirt, he says, *Thou art now as clean as this shirt*,

and purified from the stain of original sin. To conclude this ceremony, a little gold or silver cross, or one of inferior value, according as the circumstances of the parent will best admit of, is hung about the infant's neck, which is the badge or token of his baptism. He must wear this not only as long as he lives, but carry it with him to his grave. To this cross must be added some saint, appointed by the priest to be his guardian and protector, the picture of whom he delivers into the godfathers' hands, and in express terms charges them to instruct the child in what manner he may pay a peculiar respect and veneration to his patron saint. After the baptism is over, the priest salutes the infant and his sponsors.

It is to be observed, that all matrimonial alliances between godfathers and the children for whom they are thus solemnly engaged, are prohibited amongst the Russians; also, that the water in the font or cistern is changed every new baptism; because they are of opinion that it is defiled or tainted with the original sin of those who were previously baptized in it. Those who become proselytes to the Russian religion, are baptized in some rapid stream, or some adjacent river, in which they are plunged three times successively; and if it happens in the winter-season, there is a hole broken in the ice for the performance of that ordinance. If, however, the person should be of too weak a constitution to undergo such a *violent initiation*, a barrel full of water is poured over his head three times successively,

After the baptism is over, the priest takes the infant newly baptized, and with his head makes a cross upon the church-door, at which he knocks three times with a hammer; each stroke must be so loud that those who were eye witnesses of the baptism shall hear the sound of it, for otherwise they do not look upon the infant as duly baptized.

In the evening of their wedding-day, the bridegroom, accompanied by a numerous train of his nearest relations and acquaintance, proceeds to wait on his mistress; the priest who is to solemnize their nuptials riding on horseback before them. After the congratulations, and other compliments, customary on such joyful occasions in all countries, the company sit down to table. "But notwithstanding there are three elegant dishes instantly served up," says Olearius, "no one takes the freedom to taste of them." At the upper end of the table is a vacant seat intended for the bridegroom. Whilst he is in earnest discourse with the bride's relations, some young gentleman takes possession of his chair, and does not resign it without some valuable consideration.

As soon as the bridegroom has thus redeemed his seat, the bride is introduced into the room, dressed as gaily as possible, but covered with a veil. A curtain of crimson taffeta, supported by two young gentlemen, now parts the lovers, and prevents them from stealing any amorous glances from each others' eyes. In the next place, the bride's Suacha, or agent, wreathes her hair, and after she has turned up her tresses, puts a crown upon her head, which is either of gold or silver gilt, and lined with silk, and of greater or less value, in proportion to the quality or circumstances of the person for whom it is intended. The other Suacha is employed in setting the bridegroom off to the best advantage. During this interval, some women that are present, sing a number of little merry catches to divert them; whilst the bridesmaids strew hops upon the heads of the company. Two lads, after this, bring in a large cheese, and several rolls or little loaves, in a hand-basket, with curious sable tassels to it. Two of the bride's attendants bring in another cheese, and the same quantity of bread, upon her particular account. All these provisions, after the priest has blessed them, are carried to the church. At last, there is a large silver basin set upon the table, full of small remnants of satin and taffeta, with several small square pieces of silver, hops, barley, and oats, all mingled together. The Suacha, after she has put the bride's veil over her face again, takes several handfuls of this medley out of the basin, and strews it over the heads of all the company. The next ceremony is the exchange of their respective rings, which is performed by the parents of the new married couple. The Suacha now conducts the bride to church, and the bridegroom follows with the priest, who, for the most part, indulges himself in drinking to that excess, that he is obliged to have two attendants to support him, not only whilst he rides on horseback to the church, but all the time he is there performing the matrimonial service.

One part of the pavement of the church, where the ceremony is performed, is covered with crimson taffeta, and another piece of the same silk is spread over it, where the bride and bridegroom are appointed to stand. The priest, before he enters upon his office, demands their oblations, which consist in fish, pastry, &c. Then he gives them his benediction, and holds over their heads the pictures of those saints, who were made choice of to be their patrons. After which, taking the right hand of the bridegroom and the left of the bride within his own hands, he asks them three times, "Whether they sincerely consent to, and approve of their marriage, and whether they

will love each other for the future as is their bounden duty so to do?" When they have answered *Yes*, all the company in general take hands, and join in a solemn dance, whilst the priest sings the 128th Psalm (according to the Hebrew computation) in which almost all the blessings that attend the married state are enumerated. The priest, as soon as the Psalm is finished, puts a garland of rue upon their heads; but if the man be a widower, or the woman a widow, then he lays it upon their shoulders. The blessing attendant on this ceremony begins with these words, *Increase and multiply*; and concludes with that other solemn direction, which the Russians never understand in a rigorous sense, *Whom God hath joined, let no man put asunder*. As soon as this form of words is pronounced, all the company light their wax tapers, and one of them presents the priest with a glass of wine, which he drinks, and the newly-married couple pledge him. This is done thrice, and then the bride and bridegroom dash their glasses down upon the floor, and tread the pieces under their feet, denouncing several maledictions on all those, who shall hereafter endeavour to set them at variance. At the same time several women strew linseed and hemp-seed upon their heads.

After this ceremony is over, the usual congratulations are repeated, with such other demonstrations of gayety and rejoicing as generally accompany the nuptial rites in other countries. We must not omit one circumstance, however, which is merry and innocent enough: the women before-mentioned take fast hold of the bride's gown, in order to compel her, as it were, to forsake her husband; but the bride usually maintains so strong a hold of him, that all their endeavours prove ineffectual.

Their nuptial ceremonies thus far concluded, the bride goes home in a Russian car or sledge, attended by six flambeaux, and the bridegroom on horseback. The company come after them. As soon as they are all within doors, the bridegroom sits down at the table with his friends; but the women conduct the bride to her bed-chamber, and put her to bed. Afterwards some young gentlemen wait on the bridegroom with their wax tapers in their hands, and conduct him to his lady's apartment. As soon as they are within the chamber, they deposit their lights upon the hogsheads that surround the nuptial bed. The bride, wrapped up in her nightgown, now jumps out of bed, approaches her husband with much respect, and makes him a very submissive and respectful obeisance. This is the first moment, according to Olearius, that the husband has any

opportunity of seeing his wife unveiled. They then sit down to table, and sup together. Amongst other dishes, there is a roast fowl set before them, which the husband tears to pieces, throwing that part which he holds in his hands, whether it be the leg or the wing, over his shoulder, and eating the remainder. Here the ceremony ends.

The spectators now withdraw, and the newly-married couple go to bed, after crossing themselves, and addressing a short prayer to the pictures of their patron saints. An old domestic servant stands sentinel at the chamber-door, whilst some of the company who are more superstitious than the rest, spend the interval in using enchantments for a happy consummation of this love adventure. The following days are spent in all imaginable demonstrations of joy and rejoicing. The men indulge themselves in drinking to excess, whilst the husband carouses with his friends, and drowns his senses in intoxicating liquors.

The Russian funeral solemnities are as remarkable in all respects as their nuptial ceremonies. As soon as a sick person has expired, they send for the relations and friends of the deceased, who place themselves about the corpse, and weep over it if they can. There are Funeral Solemnities. women likewise who attend as mourners, and ask the deceased "What was the cause of his death? Were his circumstances narrow and perplexed? Did he want either the necessities or conveniences of life?" &c. The relatives of the deceased now make the priest a present of some strong beer, brandy, and metheglin, that he may pray for the repose of the soul of the deceased. In the next place, the corpse is well washed, dressed in clean linen, or wrapped in a shroud, and shod with Russia leather, and put into a coffin, the arms being laid over the stomach, in the form of a cross. The Russians make their coffins of the trunks of hollowed trees, and cover them with cloth, or at least with the great coat of the deceased. The corpse is not carried, however, to church, till it has been kept eight or ten days at home, if the season or circumstances of the deceased will admit of such a delay; for it is a received opinion, that the longer they stay in this world, the better reception they will meet with in the next. The priest thurifies the corpse, and sprinkles it with holy water, till the very day of its interment.

The funeral procession is ranged or disposed in the following manner. A priest marches in the front, carrying the image of the particular saint who was made choice of as patron of the deceased at the time he was baptized. Four young

virgins, who are the nearest relations to the deceased, and the chief mourners, follow him; or, for want of such female friends, the same number of women are hired to attend, and to perform that melancholy office. After them comes the corpse, carried on the shoulders of six bearers. If the party deceased be a monk or a nun, the brothers or sisters of the convent to which they belonged perform this last friendly office for them. Several friends march on either side of the corpse, thurifying it, and singing as they go along, to drive away the evil spirits, and to prevent them from hovering round about it. The relations and friends bring up the rear, each having a wax taper in his hand. As soon as they are arrived at the grave, the coffin is uncovered, and the image of the deceased's favourite saint is laid over him, whilst the priest repeats some prayers suitable to the solemn occasion, or reads some particular passages out of the liturgy. After that, the relations and friends bid their last sad adieu, either by saluting the deceased himself, or the coffin in which he is interred. The priest, in the next place, comes close to his side, and puts his *passport* or *certificate* into his hand, which is signed by the archbishop, and likewise by his father confessor, who sell it at a dearer or cheaper rate, according to the circumstances or quality of those who purchase it. This billet is a testimonial of the virtue and good actions of the deceased, or at least, of his sincere repentance of all his sins. When a person at the point of expiring is so happy as to have the benediction of his priest, and after his decease, his passport in his hand, his immediate reception into heaven is, in their opinion, infallibly secured. The priest always recommends the deceased to the favour and protection of St. Nicholas. To conclude, the coffin is nailed up and let down into the grave, the face of the deceased being turned towards the east. The friends and relations now take their last farewell in unfeigned tears, or at least, in seeming sorrow and concern, which are expressed by mourners who are hired for that purpose.

The Russians frequently distribute money and provisions amongst the poor who hover round the grave; but it is a very common custom amongst them, according to Olearius, "*to drown their sorrow and affliction in metheglin, and in brandy;*" and it too often happens that they get drunk on those occasions, in commemoration of their deceased friends.

During their mourning, which continues forty days, they make three funeral entertainments, that is to say, on the third, the ninth, and the twentieth day after the interment. A priest, who is contracted with for that purpose, must spend some time

in prayer for the consolation and repose of the soul of the deceased every night and morning, for forty days successively in a tent, which is erected on that occasion over the grave of the deceased. They commemorate their dead likewise once a year; this ceremony consists principally in mourning over their tombs, and in taking care that they be duly performed with incense by some of their mercenary priests, who, besides the fee or gratuity which they receive for their incense, (or more properly the small quantity of wax with which they thurify the tombs,) make an advantage likewise of the various provisions which are frequently brought to such places, or of the alms which are left there, and intended by the donors for the relief and maintenance of the poor; for the Russian nobility and gentry hope to atone, by their charitable donations, for their manifold and inhuman acts of oppression.

We shall add in this place an interesting account of the burial of Prince Galitzin, in Moscow, taken from Dr. Clarke's Travels, who was an eye witness of the ceremony. Burial of This ceremony was performed in a small church Prince Galitzin near the Mareschal bridge. The body was laid in a superb crimson coffin, richly embossed with silver, and placed beneath the dome of the church. On a throne, raised at the head of the coffin, stood the archbishop, who read the service. On each side were ranged the inferior clergy, clothed, as usual, in the most costly robes, bearing in their hands wax tapers, and burning incense. The ceremony began at ten in the morning. Having obtained admission to the church, we placed ourselves among the spectators, immediately behind his grace. The chanting had a solemn and sublime effect. It seemed as if choristers were placed in the upper part of the dome, which, perhaps, was really the case. The words uttered were only a constant repetition of "*Lord have mercy upon us!*" or, in Russian, "*Ghospodi pomilui!*" When the archbishop turned to give his benediction to all the people, he observed us, and added in Latin, "*Pas vobiscum!*" to the astonishment of the Russians; who not comprehending the new words introduced into the service, muttered among themselves. Incense was then offered to the pictures and to the people; and that ceremony ended, the archbishop read aloud a declaration, purporting that the deceased died in the true faith; that he had repented of his errors, and that his sins were absolved. Then turning to us, as the paper was placed in the coffin, he said again in Latin: "This is what all you foreigners call *the passport*; and you relate, in books of travels, that we believe no soul can go to heaven without it.

Now I wish you to understand what it really is ; and to explain to your countrymen upon my authority, that it is nothing more than a declaration, or certificate, concerning the death of the deceased." Then laughing, he added, " I suppose you commit all this to paper ; and one day I shall see an engraving of this ceremony, with an old archbishop giving a passport to St. Peter."

The lid of the coffin being now removed, the body of the prince was exposed to view ; and all the relatives, servants, slaves, and other attendants, began their loud lamentations, as is the custom among the Russians ; and each person, walking round the corpse, made prostration before it, and kissed the lips of the deceased. The venerable figure of an old slave presented a most affecting spectacle. He threw himself flat on the pavement, with a degree of violence which might have cost him his life, and quite stunned by the blow, remained a few seconds insensible ; afterwards, his loud sobs were heard ; and we saw him tearing off and scattering his white hairs. He had, according to the custom of the country, received his liberty upon the death of the prince ; but choosing rather to consign himself for the remainder of his days to a convent, he retired for ever from the world, saying : " Since his dear old master was dead, there was no one living who cared for him."

A plate was handed about, containing boiled rice and raisins ; a ceremony I am unable to explain. The face of the deceased was covered by linen, and the archbishop poured consecrated oil, and threw a white powder, probably lime, several times upon it, pronouncing some words in the Russian language ; which, supposing us not to understand, he repeated aloud in Latin : "*Dust thou art ; and unto dust thou art returned !*" The lid of the coffin was then replaced ; and, after a requiem, "sweet as from blest voices," a procession began from the church to a convent in the vicinity of the city, where the body was to be interred. There was nothing solemn in this part of the ceremony. It began by the slaves of the deceased on foot, all of whom were in mourning. Next went the priests, bearing tapers ; then came the body on a common droski ; the whip of the driver being bound with crape ; and afterwards a line of carriages, of the miserable description before observed. But, instead of that slow movement usually characteristic of funeral processions, the priests and the people ran as fast as they could ; and the body was jolted along in an uncouth manner. Far behind the last rumbling vehicle were seen persons following, out of breath, unable to keep up with their companions.

Sect of Raskolniki, or Ibraniki.—This is the only sect that has separated from the established church in Russia. They are supposed to amount to about one million. The date of their separation was about the year 1666. They pretend to be ardent lovers of the Holy Scriptures, and distinguished for their piety. Its members assume the name of *Ibraniki*, that is, the multitude of the elect; or, according to others, *Straoivertsi*, that is, believers in the ancient faith: but the name given them by their adversaries, and that by which they are generally known, is *Raskolniki*, that is, schismatics, or the *seditionary faction*. In defence of their separation, they allege the corruptions, in both doctrine and discipline, that have been introduced into the Russian church. They profess a rigorous zeal for the *letter* of the holy scripture, which they do not understand; and the transposition of a single word in a new edition of the Russian Bible, though this transposition was intended to correct an uncouth phrase in the translation commonly received, threw them into the greatest tumult. They will not allow a priest to administer baptism after having tasted spirituous liquors; and in this, perhaps, they act rightly, since it is said, “that the Russian priests seldom touch the flask without drinking deep.” They hold, that there is no subordination of rank, no superior or inferior among the faithful; that a Christian may kill himself for the love of Christ; that *Hallelujah* must be only twice pronounced, that it is a great sin to repeat it thrice; and that a priest must never give a blessing except with three fingers. They are regular, even to austerity, in their manners; but as they have always refused to admit Christians of other denominations into their religious assemblies, they have been suspected of committing in them various abominations, but this ought not to be believed without the strongest demonstrative proof. They have suffered much persecution; and various means have been used to bring them back into the bosom of the church, but in vain; and arguments, promises, threatenings, dragoonings, the authority of synods and councils, seconded by racks and gibbets, in a word, all the methods that artifice or barbarity could suggest, have been practised; but these, instead of lessening, have increased their numbers, and, instead of closing, have widened the breach. Some wealthy merchants and great lords are attached to this sect; and it is widely diffused among the peasants. It ought to be added, that the members of this sect consider the worship of images as gross idolatry; and, perhaps, this practice, real or supposed, in the Russian church, was one reason of their separating from it.

SEC. III.—OTHER BRANCHES OF THE GREEK CHURCH.

Besides the Greek Church Proper, of which the Russian Church may be considered an independent branch, there are several other branches of the same church, which are scattered over a great extent of country in the east, embracing an unknown, but large number of members. Those which we shall briefly notice are, the *Georgian* and *Mingrelian Greek Churches*, the *Nestorians*, Christians of *St. Thomas*, *Jacobites*, *Copts*, *Abyssinians* and *Armenians*. It may be remarked, however, of these several communions, that they are in a miserable state of ignorance, superstition, and wretchedness. The Holy Scriptures are but little known among them; but the British and Foreign Bible Society has, within a few years, directed considerable attention to their necessities; and has circulated nearly two hundred thousand copies of the Bible, for their use, in their several languages.

Sec. 1.—*Georgian and Mingrelian Churches.*

Georgia and Mingrelia are two countries of Asia. The former of which lies between the Black and Caspian seas;

Situation of Georgia and the latter between Circassia on the north, and Gurriel on the south. The former was the ancient Iberia, the latter in part the ancient Colchis. The inhabitants of both these countries are sunk in poverty, ignorance, and semi-barbarism. Yet an interest attaches to them on account of their religion, which was once more flourishing than at present. They are a branch of the Greek Church. These two people are said to profess the same faith, with this difference, however, that the Mingrelians residing in the mountains and woods are more vicious and depraved in morals than the Georgians.

Each of these nations has a pontiff at their head, whom they call *Catholicos*, or the Catholic—who is obliged to pay

Their Pontiffs. a certain tribute to the Patriarch of Constantinople—but is, in every other respect, independent of any foreign jurisdiction. They have

bishops and priests, who are not only ignorant, but exceedingly dissolute and corrupt. Some of their bishops are able neither to read or write, and in order to discharge their duty learn to say mass by heart; which, however, they are never inclined to do without being very well paid for their trouble,

The priests are allowed not only to marry, according to the custom of the Greek Church, before ordination, but many

enter into second marriages at the expense only of a dispensation from the bishop, which amounts to about a pistole. In short, they may marry a third or fourth time upon paying double fees for every new indulgence. The patriarch, likewise, never ordains a bishop without being first paid the sum of five hundred crowns. Their Priests.

When any person is very much indisposed amongst them, he sends for a priest, who attends him rather in the capacity of a physician, than as a father-confessor; for he never mentions one word of confession to his patient. Turning over the leaves of a particular book, which he carries about him for that purpose, with an extraordinary display of fictitious gravity and circumspection, he pretends to find therein the real cause of the distemper, which he usually ascribes to the high displeasure of some of their images; for it is a received notion amongst them, that their images are capable of gratifying their resentments on those who have offended them. The cause of the disorder being thus decidedly ascertained, the priestly physician enjoins his patient to make atonement for his sins by some acceptable oblation to the incensed image; that is to say, some valuable present in money or effects, which he always takes care to apply to his own private advantage.

In regard to their baptismal ceremonies, as soon as an infant is born, the papas, or priest, makes the sign of the cross on his forehead, and eight days afterwards anoints him with the Myrone, that is, their consecrated oil; but he never baptizes him till two years after; and the following form is observed. Baptismal ceremonies. The child is brought to the church, and presented to the papas, who immediately asks his name, and lights a little wax taper; after which he reads a long lesson, and repeats several prayers suitable to the occasion. After that, the godfather undresses the infant, and plunges him naked into a kind of font or bathing vessel, full of lukewarm water, mixed with walnut-oil, and washes his body all over, the papas taking no share in this part of the ceremony, nor pronouncing a single syllable during the whole of the time. After this general ablution, however, he advances towards the water-vessel, and gives the Myrone to the godfather, to anoint the infant. The godfather accordingly anoints his forehead, nose, eyes, ears, breast, navel, knees, soles of the feet, heels, hams, loins, shoulders, and the crown of his head. After this ceremony is over, he plunges him again into the font, or water-vessel, and offers him a bit of blessed bread to eat, and a small portion of sacred wine to drink. If the child swallows them, it is looked upon

as a happy omen. In conclusion, the godfather returns the infant to its mother, saying three times, "*You delivered him into my hands a Jew, and I return him to you a Christian.*"

We shall now proceed to the nuptial ceremonies of the Georgians, which are, in fact, nothing more than a mere contract, by way of bargain and sale. The parents bring their daughters to market, and agree with the purchasers for a particular sum, which is greater or smaller, according to the value of the living commodities. A female who has never been married commands ■ much higher price than a widow, and a virgin in her bloom more than an antiquated maid. As soon as the purchase-money is raised and ready, the father of the bridegroom gives an entertainment, at which the son attends with his cash in hand, and deposits it on the table before he offers to sit down: at the same time, the relations of the bride provide an equivalent, which is generally as near the value of his money as possible, consisting of all manner of necessary household goods, cattle, clothes, slaves, &c. This custom appears to be very ancient, and after the entertainment is over, the bride repairs to the bridegroom's house, attended by her relations, friends, and acquaintance. The procession is enlivened by a concert of instrumental music; the contractors going before, to inform the family, that the newly-married couple will arrive soon at home. These messengers, on their first arrival, are presented with bread, wine, and meat; without offering to enter the house, however, they take the flagon of wine, and pour it lavishly round about it. This libation is consecrated by their hearty wishes for the health, prosperity, and peace of the newly-married couple. After this, they return to the bride, and conduct her home to her husband's apartment, in which the other relations and friends are all assembled. In the middle of the room a carpet is spread upon the floor; and a pitcher of wine, with a kettle full of dough, called *Gom*, which they make their bread with, are set upon it. Soon after her entrance, the bride kicks down the pitcher, and scatters the paste with both her hands all over the room. We are at a loss to determine the mystical design of this practice, unless it be emblematical of the plenty and fruitfulness of the marriage-state. The ceremony is attended with the usual pastimes and demonstrations of joy, which are customary on such public occasions.

The essential part of the nuptial mystery, however, is not solemnized here, but in a private apartment, for fear the *sorcerers* should cast a spell upon the newly married couple.

The bridegroom and his bride stand with their godfather before a priest, who reads over the marriage words by the light of a wax taper; and two garlands of flowers, either natural or artificial, are set close to each other on an adjoining table, with tufts of various colours; a tavaiole, that is, a veil; a glass of wine, a piece of bread, and a needle and thread. The godfather now throws a veil over the bridegroom's head, and, whilst the priest is reading the ceremony, sews the garments of the bride and bridegroom together. This godfather likewise puts crowns upon their heads, and changes them three or four times successively, according to the tenor of the prayers repeated on the occasion. After this, he takes the glass and the pieces of bread into his hands, and gives the bridegroom one bit, and the bride another; this he repeats three times, and then eats the seventh himself. He now gives them the glass three times a-piece, and then drinks the remainder, which concludes the ceremony.

The veil made use of on this occasion, is the emblem or image of the nuptial bed, and the thread, with which the bridegroom and bride are sewed together, the symbol of the conjugal knot; but as the Georgians and Mingrelians are addicted to divorce and to discard their wives, and as they are frequently guilty of fornication and polygamy, the fragility of the thread is looked upon as a lively representation of the precarious and uncertain duration of this happy union. The bread and wine denote their community, or having things in common together. The godfather eats and drinks the remains, to intimate that he has contracted a kind of relationship with them, and that he ought to be an impartial judge, or to be the arbitrator, in any controversies that may afterwards arise between them.

The mourning of the Mingrelians, according to the accounts of several travellers, is like that of persons in the very depth of despair, and consists not only in weeping, or rather howling, in honour of their dead, but also in shaving their beards and eyebrows. Funeral Ceremonies. Moreover, when a wife loses her husband, or some other near relation, she rends her clothes, strips herself naked to the waist, tears her hair, scarifies her body, and scratches her face all over. The men likewise behave nearly in the same manner, and are more or less violent, as necessity, inclination, or the circumstances of their mourning prompt them. This continues forty days, with a gradual diminution of their sorrow, as that term draws near to its expiration.

On the ten first days, the relations and intimate friends and

acquaintance meet constantly to weep over the deceased. Their cries and howlings, their transports of sorrow, and their silence and serenity of mind, alternately succeed each other. On the last day they inter the corpse, on which occasion the catholicos puts upon the breasts of those who die in the faith, a letter or petition, in which he humbly beseeches St. Peter to open the gate of heaven for them, and to admit of their entrance. This ceremony is sometimes performed even before they put them in their shrouds. On the fortieth day of their mourning, the Georgians have a funeral entertainment for the relations, friends, and acquaintance of the deceased, at which the men sit at one table, and the women at another. The bishop now reads a mass for the dead, and takes, for his fee or gratuity, every thing that was allotted to the service of the deceased.

Sec. 2.—*Nestorian Churches.*

There are several sects of Christians in the Levant, who are known and distinguished by the name of Chaldeans or Rise. Syrians: but the most considerable part of them are those who pass under the denomination of *Nestorians*, and in reality revere Nestorius, who was Patriarch of Constantinople in the beginning of the fifth century, by invoking him in their prayers.

The occasion of the fatal controversy in which Nestorius involved the church, was furnished by Anastasius, who was honoured with his friendship.

This presbyter, in a public discourse, delivered in 424, declaimed warmly against the title of *Mother of God*, which was then frequently attributed to the Virgin *Mary* in the controversy with the Arians, giving it as his opinion, that the Holy Virgin was rather to be called *Mother of Christ*, since the Deity can neither be born nor die, and, of consequence, the son of man alone could derive his birth from an earthly parent. *Nestorius* applauded these sentiments, and explained and defended them in several discourses.

In opposition to him, Eutyches, an abbot at Constantinople, declared that these natures were so united in Christ, as to form but one nature, that of the Incarnate word. It was an age when men were fast losing sight of the Gospel, and contending about modes and forms; and these opposite opinions threw the whole eastern world into bitter contention, and gave rise to that great division, which continues to this day among the miserable remnant of the Eastern churches. The follow-

ers of the former, are called Nestorians; the latter, Monophysites.

The Nestorians early became the chief propagators of the Gospel in the East. They enjoyed the patronage of the Persian monarch Pherazes, by whom their opponents were expelled from his kingdom, and their patriarch was established at Seleucia. They established a school at Nisibis under Barsumas, a disciple of Nestorius, from whence proceeded, in the fifth and sixth centuries, a band of missionaries, who spread abroad their tenets, through Egypt, Syria, Arabia, India, Tartary and China. In the twelfth century, they won over to their faith the prince of Tartary, who was baptized John; and because he exercised the office of presbyter, was, with his successors, called Prester John. They made converts also of the Christians on the coast of Malabar, who, it is supposed, received the Christian faith from the Syrian Mar Thomas, in the fourth or fifth century.

They formed, at one time, an immense body; but dwindled away before the Saracen power, and the exasperated heathen priests and jealous Chinese emperors. They acknowledged but one patriarch until 1551, who resided first at Bagdad, and afterwards at Mousul. But at this period, the Papists succeeded in dividing them, and a new patriarch was consecrated by Pope Julius III. and established over the adherents to the pope, in the city of Ormus. The great patriarch at Mousul, called Elias, has continued, however, to be acknowledged to this day, by the greater part of the Nestorians, who are scattered over Asia.

Throughout this long period, they have maintained considerable purity of doctrine and worship, and kept free from the ridiculous ceremonies of the Greek and Latin churches. Of their present number, and religious character, we know but little. Probably they are very ignorant, debased, and corrupt.*

We shall now proceed to such religious customs among the Nestorians, as may be more properly thought an essential part of this history. Before the sixth century, the patriarch of the Nestorians was dignified and distinguished by the title of Catholic, which he has retained ever since. His clergy, as well as those of the Greeks in Constantinople, consist of married and monastic priests. The latter, in Syria and Mesopotamia, are dressed in black, with a capuche, or hood, which covers the crown of

Dress of their
Clergy.

* Marsh's Ecc. History.

their head like a calot, and hangs down upon the shoulders like a veil. Over this they wear a turban, the cap and the linen cloth of which are of a deep blue. The patriarch and the bishops are not distinguished from the priests by any particular dress, but by their pastoral staff and a cross, which they carry in their hands, and hold out for the devotees to kiss. The head of the former is made either like a crutch, or a croiser. The vestments of their married priests are all black likewise, or at least dark gray; but instead of wearing a capuche upon their heads, they have a round cap with a large button upon the top of it.

Besides the regular monastic priests, there are several convents in Mesopotamia, the monks of which are not priests, but style themselves monks of the order of *St. Anthony*. The habit of these Nestorian monks is an open black cassock, which is girt round them with a leathern surcingle, and a gown over it, the sleeves of which are very large. They wear no capuche, but a purple turban instead of it. At midnight, morning, and evening, they repeat the church service, but spend the remainder of the day in tilling their grounds.

The churches belonging to the Nestorians are divided by balustrades, or rails; and one part of them is always allotted

Churches. for the peculiar service of the women. The font is erected on the south side. When they say their prayers, and pay their adoration to the Supreme Being, they always turn their faces towards the east. Before the entrance into these churches, there is, generally, a large court, with a very small door. This court was originally the place appointed for the reception of penitents, and was made use of as a bar to the profane, in order to prevent them hearing and seeing the different proceedings and ceremonies of the Christian assemblies.

Independently of the fasts, which are generally observed by the Christians of the Greek Church, the Nestorians keep one in particular, which continues three days; it is called the Fast of Nineveh, because they therein imitate the repenting Ninevites, who did penance for their sins for three days after the preaching of the prophet Jonas. This fast is the introduction to their Lent.

Fast of Nineveh.

The Christians of Syria and Mesopotamia have added to their calendar one festival in commemoration of the penitent thief, which is not observed by the Roman Catholic Church; it is called by them *LASS-AL-JEMIN*, that is, *the Thief on the right hand*. This falls upon the octave of Easter.

The bathing of the Syrian Christians in the river Jordan

must be reckoned amongst their religious customs, but the ceremony itself is very idle and ridiculous.

These people, however, practise it as an act of devotion, and Christians of all denominations, as Greeks, Nestorians, Copts, &c. wash themselves naked in the river, with great solemnity, in commemoration of Jesus Christ and his baptism. In this instance, they concern themselves as little in regard to the difference of the sexes, as of the sects; for men and women jump promiscuously into the river, and plunge down to the bottom. Some of the most zealous devotees dip their handkerchiefs in the sacred stream; others carry a quantity of the water away with them in bottles; and the very dirt, sand, and grass that grows upon the banks, are all looked upon as sacred relics.

Religious
Bathing.

The nuptial ceremonies of the Syrians are very singular and remarkable. The bridegroom is conducted to the house of the bride on horseback, between two drawn swords, which are carried by two men, one before and the other behind him. The relations, friends, and acquaintance of the bride receive him with their flambeaux lighted, and music preceding them, accompanied with songs, acclamations, and other testimonies of general joy. On the wedding-night the bridegroom gives his spouse an uncourteous kick, and commands her to pull off his shoes, as a token of her submission and obedience.

Nuptial
ceremonies.

When a Christian dies at Bagdad, the neighbours assemble, in order to perform his funeral obsequies. At their return from the place of interment, a handsome collation is always prepared for their refreshment at the house of the deceased, where every one is welcome without distinction, inasmuch, that sometimes a hundred and fifty, or more, appear at these funeral entertainments. The next day, the company meet in order to pray together over the grave of the deceased, which is likewise repeated on the third day; when there is another public entertainment provided for them, and in general the same welcome is given to all as before. These ceremonies are repeated on the seventh day, the fifteenth, the thirtieth, and the fortieth, after the decease.

Funeral
obsequies.

At Damas, the Christian women sing and weep over their dead. Thevenot saw a company of these female mourners, accompanied by two men with lighted candles in their hands, howling over the dead, and beating their breasts to express their sorrow. Every now and then they made a halt; then fell into a ring, and snapping their fingers, as if they were play-

ing with castanets, danced and sung to the sound, whilst others kept time in hideous howlings. The ceremony concluded with mutual testimonies of respect; after which they departed, dancing and snapping their fingers as before. Nearly the same ceremonies are observed at Rama on similar occasions. Father Le Brun says, "that they weep for about half an hour over the grave of their deceased friends; then rise and fall into a ring, as if they were going to dance to the *brawls*."—Two of them after this quit the ring, and planting themselves in the middle, there make a thousand grimaces, howling and clapping their hands. After this frightful noise, they sit down to drown their sorrow in tears. All the female mourners that Le Brun saw, relieved each other. Those who had finished went home, and others supplied their place. When these women stood up, in order to form themselves into a ring, they covered their heads with a black veil.

Sec. 3.—*Christians of St. Thomas.*

With regard to the origin of the Christians of St. Thomas, who inhabit the coast of Malabar and Travancore, there exists much difference of opinion. The Portuguese, who first opened the navigation of India, in the fifteenth century, and found them seated there for ages, assert that St. Thomas, the apostle, preached the gospel in India; and that these are the descendants of his proselytes.

The Christians of St. Thomas declare themselves descendants of one MAR THOMAS or THOMAS CANA, an Armenian merchant, who settled at Congranor. *Mar Thomas* married two wives, and had issue by each. The children by the former were heirs to all his effects and lands, which were situate in the southern part of the kingdom of Congranor; and those of the latter, who was a negro-slave converted to the Christian faith, inherited the settlement of which their father died possessed in the North. In process of time, his descendants became very numerous, and constituted two considerable branches, which were never united nor allied to each other. The issue of his first wife, from whom the nobility are descended, look down with disdain on the Christians of the other branch, and carry their aversion to so high a pitch, as to separate themselves from their communion, and to condemn the ministry of their priests. *Mar Thomas*, whom these Christians look upon as their common parent, flourished, according to the general notion, in the tenth century; but M. la Croza thinks

that he lived in the sixth. These Christians enjoyed so many valuable privileges under the sovereigns of the country, and grew so powerful, that they at length elected kings out of their own nation and religion. They continued in this state of independence till the death of one of their sovereigns, who leaving no heir to the throne, they adopted a young idolatrous Prince who was his neighbour, and appointed him to be his successor.

The Rev. Dr. Buchanan, vice-provost of the college of Fort-William, who visited these Christians in 1806, and counts fifty-five churches in *Malayala*,* denies that they are Nestorians, and observes that their doctrines "are contained in a very few articles, and are not at variance in essentials with the doctrines of the church of England. They are usually denominated *Jacobitæ*,† but they differ in ceremonial from the church of that name in Syria, and indeed from any existing church in the world. Their proper designation, and that which is sanctioned by their own use, is *Syrian Christians* or *The Syrian Church of Malayala*." Yet the Doctor remarks, that they acknowledge "the Patriarch of Antioch," and that they are connected with certain churches in Mesopotamia and Syria, 215 in number, and labouring under circumstances of discouragement and distress: but he does not say whether it is to the *Greek* or the *Jacobite* Patriarch of Antioch that they are subject.‡

Dr. Buchanan's account.

In respect to their religious ceremonies they observe at Easter a kind of public collation, which bears some affinity with the *Agapæ* of the primitive Christians. This feast or entertainment consists generally of nothing but a few herbs, fruits, and rice; and is made in the fore-court before the church-porch. The priests at those times have a double, and the bishop a triple portion of what is provided. To these *Agapæ*, we must add another ceremony, called by the Christians of St. Thomas, their *CAS-TURE*, which is said to be an emblem, or symbol, of brotherly love. During the time they are in the church, they take hold

Religious customs.

* *Malayala* comprehends the mountains and the whole region within them, from Cape Cormorin to Cape Illi. Whereas the province of *Malabar* commonly so called, contains only the northern districts, not including the country of *Travancore*.

† Their Liturgy, Dr. B. tells us, is derived from that of the early church of Antioch, called "*Liturgia Jacobi Apostoli*."—And, according to Mr. Gibbon, "the Jacobites themselves had rather deduce their name and pedigree from St. James the Apostle."

‡ All Religions.

of the hands of one of their most ancient CACANARES, or priests, and in that posture receive his benediction.

These Christians have holy water placed at their church-doors, with which they make the sign of the cross, repeating at the same time a prayer in commemoration of *Nestorius*. It is merely a little common water, mixed with a small quantity of mould, taken out of the road through which St. Thomas had travelled. In case they have no such mould, they throw a few grains of frankincense into it. We have before observed, that they have not only crosses, but pictures or representations of them, hung up in their churches; and the priests likewise carry a crucifix in procession, obliging the devotees who assist to salute it. This act of devotion has been embraced even by the Pagans. There are also crosses erected not only in their streets and high roads, but in the most solitary places. They are erected on a pedestal, in which there is a hole or cavity, large enough to contain a burning lamp; and the Indians frequently contribute towards the oil that is spent to support these lamps.

The use of bells is prohibited amongst those Chaldeans who live under the authority and jurisdiction of the Indians; because the sound of those instruments, in their opinion, is offensive and incommodious to their idols: the ancient pagans were no strangers to this idle notion.

It is a common practice among the Indian Christians, out of devotion, to lie all night in their churches; and the same custom was frequently observed by the ancient idolaters. The posture of these Indians, when they say their prayers, is prostration with their faces to the ground.

A description of their dances may be properly enough introduced in this place. The men dance by themselves, and the maidens and married women also by themselves, with all imaginable modesty and decorum. Before they begin, they not only make the sign of the cross, but sing the Lord's Prayer, with a hymn in commemoration of St. Thomas. The Indians, likewise, amongst whom these Christians live, make dancing a part of their divine worship; and it is well known that it was a principal ornament, and an essential act of devotion, at the festivals of the ancient pagans. With regard to their songs, the subject of them is always either the virtues of their saints, or the heroic actions of their ancestors.

Sec. 4.—Religious Ceremonies and Customs of the Jacobites.

Were we to include under the denomination of *Jacobites*, all the *MONOPHYSITES* of the Levant, that is, all those who are charged with the heresy of acknowledging but one nature in *JESUS CHRIST*, it must be acknowledged that their sect would be very extensive; for then we must reckon the *Armenians*, *Cophti*, and the *Abyssinians*, amongst the number. But there are very few who can strictly and justly be termed *Jacobites*, and they, for the most part, reside in Syria and Mesopotamia. There are not above 40 or 45,000 families of their persuasion; and even they themselves are divided in point of principle; some of them being reconciled to the Church of Rome, and others continuing in a state of separation. The latter have two patriarchs, who generally act in direct opposition to each other: one of them resides at Caremit, and the other at Derzapharam; independently of whom, there is another patriarch attached to the Church of Rome, who resides at Aleppo, and is dependant on, and absolutely under the jurisdiction of the court of Rome.

General account.

As to the articles of their belief, the *Monophysites*, in general, (whether *Armenians*, *Cophti*, or *Abyssinians*,) maintain the doctrine of Dioscorus, with respect to the *unity* of the *nature* and *person* of *JESUS CHRIST*, and to that degree of exactness, that, in order the more clearly to express their belief, they make the sign of the cross, according to Brerewood, with *one finger only*, whereas the other Easterns make use of two; for this reason, they are looked upon and treated as heretics, though in reality there is no other difference but in point of terms between them and the divines of the Latin Church. This is readily acknowledged by the most learned men amongst them at this very day; and is evident from the conferences which Father *Christopher Roderic*, the pope's legate in Egypt, had with the *Cophti*, on the subject of reconciliation between the two churches. They ingenuously confessed, that the only reason of their making use of such terms, was purely to testify their abhorrence and detestation of the Nestorians; for that, in reality, they were of the same opinion with the Latin Church, and freely owned the two natures of *JESUS CHRIST*. They further insisted that the mystery of the Incarnation was more clearly explained by their asserting the *unity* of *Christ's nature*; because there is

Doctrines.

but one JESUS CHRIST, who is both God and man. On the contrary, the Latins speak of these two natures as if they were severed from one another, and did not constitute one real whole.

It is in this sense, likewise, that Dioscorus, who softened some of the harsh terms which were made use of by Eutyches, declared his opinion that JESUS CHRIST was a compound of two natures; although he was not in himself two distinct natures, "which," says Father Simon, "appears an orthodox notion:" for they will not acknowledge that there were two distinct natures in JESUS CHRIST, for fear of establishing two CHRISTs. The whole of this mighty disagreement arises, however, from the different construction which each party puts on those two terms, *nature* and *person*. To which may be added, the ambition of not swerving in the least from a position once laid down, and which was the principal reason why Eutyches maintained his opinion with so much obstinacy: from which it appears, that the terms he uses ought not to be understood in their most strict and rigorous sense; but be construed and restrained to that idea, which he entertained of admitting but one CHRIST, and consequently but one nature, after the union of the two natures, the divine and human, in such a manner as is incomprehensible to our weak understandings.

In regard to all other points, relating either to the faith or ceremonies of the Jacobites, the accounts which Brerewood has given us of them are not always strictly just. For instance, they neither deny a state of *purgatory*, nor reject prayers for the dead, as he peremptorily asserts upon the authority of Thomas the Jesuit; but their notions, in those particulars, are the same as those of the Greeks, and other oriental nations. Neither is it true that they consecrate the sacrament with unleavened bread; the Armenians, and, according to Alvares, the Ethiopians, only excepted; for the true Jacobites, of whom we are speaking, make use of *leavened* bread. Gregory XIII. who purposed to found a college at Rome for the Jacobites, there being one antecedently erected for the encouragement of the Maronites, would no doubt have indulged them, as well as the Greeks, with the administration of the sacrament with leavened bread; but in regard to *confession*, the assertion that it is not practised amongst them is likewise a gross mistake; for as it is not looked upon by them as of divine institution, it is consequently very much neglected. Brerewood says that they confess their sins to God alone, and not to a priest, except upon some ex-

traordinary occasion. His assertion, however, about circumcision, must be false, unless he means to refer to a few amongst the Cophti and the Abyssinians; and even they look on it rather as an ancient custom than a religious ceremony.

A great distinction ought however to be made between the Jacobites, when the Cophti, Abyssinians, and Armenians, are included under that denomination, and those who are strictly and properly so called; for though they are all followers of *that* St. James, from whom they derive their title; yet they do not all observe the same ceremonies. James was the disciple of Severus, Patriarch of Antioch, in the sixth century. He is revered as a saint by the Jacobites, as well as Dioscorus, who was his contemporary. Abrahamus Ecchellensis insists that the Jacobites, as well as the Latins, acknowledge that the Holy Ghost proceeds from the Father and the Son; but Father Simon says that "he is very much mistaken in this particular, as well as in several others relating to the customs and tenets of the Eastern Christians."

Before baptism the Jacobites imprint the sign of the cross, not only on the arm, but on the face of the infant to be baptized. It is likewise a received notion amongst them, that the souls of the righteous reside on earth till the day of judgment, waiting for the second coming of JESUS CHRIST; also, that the angels consist of two substances, fire and light.

The Jacobites, who are scattered throughout Syria and the parts adjacent, are computed to amount to more than fifty thousand families. There is a quotation in Brerewood, in which the number was then said to be advanced to a hundred and sixty thousand.

Sec. 5.—Religious Ceremonies and Customs of the Copts.

The *Copts*, according to Scaliger and Father Simon, derive their name from Coptos, once a celebrated town of Egypt, and the metropolis of Thebaid; but Volney and others are of opinion, that the name Copts is General account. only an abbreviation of the Greek word *Aigouptios*, an Egyptian. The Copts have a patriarch, whose jurisdiction extends over both Egypts, Nubia, and Abyssinia, who resides at Cairo, but who takes his title from Alexandria. He has under him eleven or twelve bishops, besides the abuna, or bishop of the Abyssinians, whom he appoints and consecrates. The rest of the clergy, whether secular or regular, are composed of the orders of St. Anthony, St. Paul,

and St. Macarins, who have each their monasteries. Their arch-priests are next in degree to bishops, and their deacons are said to be numerous; and they often confer the order of deacon even on children. Next to the patriarch is the bishop or titular patriarch of Jerusalem, who also resides at Cairo, because there are only few Copts at Jerusalem; he is, in reality, little more than bishop of Cairo, except that he goes to Jerusalem every Easter, and visits some other places in Palestine, within his own jurisdiction. To him belongs the government of the Coptic church, during the vacancy of the patriarchal see. The ecclesiastics are said to be in general of the lowest rank of the people; and hence that great degree of ignorance which prevails among them.

They have seven sacraments; baptism, the eucharist, confirmation, ordination, faith, fasting, and prayer. They admit

Rites and Ceremonies. only three œcumenical councils; those of Nice, Constantinople, and Ephesus. They observe

four Lents, as do the Greeks and most Eastern Christians; but it is said, by Brerewood and Ross, that they do not keep the Lord's day. There are three Coptic liturgies; one attributed to St. Basil, another to St. Gregory, and the third to St. Cyril. These are translated into Arabic for the use of the clergy and the people. The Copts are fond of rites and ceremonies. During the time of service, they are always in motion. In particular, the officiating priest is in continual motion, incensing the saints, pictures, books, &c. every moment. They have many monasteries, in which the monks bury themselves from society in remote solitudes. Their nunneries are properly hospitals; and few enter them, except widows reduced to beggary. During the first three ages of the church, no country exhibited more sincere or greater Christian piety than Egypt, and the north of Africa in general. At present, however, little more than the mere shadow of Christianity can be seen in Egypt; and, in point of numbers, not more than fifty thousand Christians in all can be found in this country. There are not more than three Christian churches at Cairo.

In respect to this people, we shall only add a brief account of their nuptial ceremonies, which, however, do not essentially

Nuptial Ceremonies. differ from those practised by the Greeks. After midnight service, or, as the Romans would

express it, after matins, the bridegroom in the first place, and then the bride, were conducted from their own apartments to church, accompanied by a long train of attendants with wax-tapers, and other lights. During the proces-

sion several hymns were sung in the Coptic language, and the performers beat time, or accompanied the vocal with instrumental music, by striking little wooden hammers upon small ebony rulers. The bridegroom was conducted into the inner choir of the church, and the bride to the place appointed for the women. Then the priests and the people began several prayers, interspersed with hymns, within the choir. This ceremony was very long. At the conclusion, the priest who solemnized the nuptials went up to the bridegroom, and read three or four prayers, making the sign of the cross both at the beginning and at the conclusion of each prayer. After that, he made him sit down upon the ground, with his face towards the HEIKEL. The priest who stood behind him held a silver cross over his head, and in that posture continued praying.

Whilst this ceremony was performing in the inner choir, the sacristan had placed a form or bench at the door of the outer choir, for the bride to sit on with one of her relations. The priest having finished in the inner choir what the Copts call the *Prayer of the Conjugal Knot*, the other priest, who solemnized the nuptials, dressed the bridegroom in an alb, tied it with a surcingle about his waist, and threw a white napkin over his head. The bridegroom thus equipped was conducted to his spouse. The priest then made him sit down by her side, and laid the napkin, which before covered the bridegroom's head, over them both. After this, he anointed each of them on the forehead, and above the wrist. To conclude the ceremony, he read over to them, after their hands were joined, an exhortation, which principally turned on the duties incumbent on all those who enter into the holy state of matrimony. Then followed sundry prayers; and after them the mass, at which the bridegroom and the bride received the blessed sacrament, and then departed.

Sec. 6.—Doctrines and Customs of the Abyssinians or Ethiopians.

Having treated of the religion of the Copts, and as there is little or no difference between them and the Abyssinians, in point of principle, we shall say General ac-
but little on that topic. count.

The country known to the ancients by the name of Ethiopia, is now called Abyssinia, and the natives thereof are distinguished by the name of Abyssinians. They are subservient only to the power and authority of one bishop, who is the metropolitan, or archbishop of all Ethiopia, and is dignified and

distinguished by the title of *Abuna*, that is to say, *Our Father*. This bishop is sent by the Patriarch of Alexandria to preside over them, and his place of residence is at Cairo; so that they resemble the Copts in all their ecclesiastical concerns, except in some few ceremonies which are peculiar to themselves. They have likewise a language of their own, which they call the Chaldaic, because they are of opinion that it was originally spoken in Chaldea, though very different from the vulgar Chaldaic. For this reason, it is likewise called the Ethiopic tongue, and they always make use of it in their liturgies, and other religious offices. Such as are versed in the Hebrew language may easily attain a competent knowledge of the Ethiopic, because there are many words which are the same in both languages: they have characters, however, peculiar to themselves; and in the Hebrew language the points which supply the place of vowels, are never joined to the consonants; whilst on the other hand, in the Ethiopic language, there is no consonant, but what at the same time includes its own vowel.

The Abyssinians are dependent on the Patriarch of Alexandria, who makes choice of, constitutes, and appoints that person to be Metropolitan of Abyssinia whom he thinks most able to fill the office, which ability is generally estimated according to the extent of the *douceur* which he is enabled to give. It is for this reason, that the Abyssinian priests mention in their prayers the Patriarch of Alexandria before their own metropolitan; who, after his election, is always accountable to that patriarch for his conduct, and the due administration of his office. This metropolitan must not be a native of Abyssinia, neither has he power to constitute or establish any other metropolitans; so that, although he has the honour to be called their *patriarch*, he has neither the authority nor the power belonging to that august character. He alone, however, issues out dispensations, and is possessed of very considerable revenues, which pay very little, if any, duty or contribution to the government.

There are both canons or prebendaries, and monks, in Abyssinia, and amongst the latter there are two sorts of hermits. The canons are allowed to marry, and their canonships frequently descend to their children: this custom is the more remarkable, for there is no other religion, except that of the Jews, which can produce any instances of hereditary succession to any ecclesiastical dignities. The *komos*, or *hegumene*, is reputed the first dignitary, or principal person in the order of priest-

Patriarch of
Abyssinia.

Orders of
Clergy.

hood, after the archbishops and bishops, both by the Copts and the Abyssinians. Their monks never marry. Of these there are two kinds; one, that have a *General*, and form a regular body; the other, who live under one common rule, but their convents are independent of each other. These monks are men of credit and reputation, and are frequently intrusted with the most important affairs of state. None but the priests and deacons have any right to enter into the sanctuary where the altar stands; the emperor himself is denied that privilege, unless he has been before admitted into holy orders; for this reason their monarchs are frequently ordained, and take either deacon's or priest's orders on the day of their coronation.

The Ethiopian princes insist, that they are descendants of Solomon by the Queen of Sheba; and this royal extraction, whether true or false, is supported by several historical testimonies, interspersed with a thousand extravagant fictions. But if this really be so, it readily accounts for that Judaism which is so universally blended with the Christianity of this empire, and which seems to be originally derived from this royal race of the Abyssinian monarchs. Indeed the Abyssinians are so confirmed, beyond all contradiction, in this belief, that their monarchs assume the title of *Kings of Israel*. The people are divided into tribes, as were the ancient Hebrews, and they preserve many Jewish names; indeed, their very singers boast that they are descendants from the ancient Scribes.

We shall next notice some of their rites and ceremonies; and first, in respect to baptism: the mother, being dressed with great neatness and decency, attends with her infant in her arms at the church-door. There the priest who officiates, pronounces several long prayers for a blessing on them both, beginning with those peculiarly appropriated to the mother. Afterwards, he conducts them into the church, and anoints the infant six several times with the oil consecrated for their exorcisms. These first unctions are accompanied with thirty-six others, administered with galilæum, each on a distinct part of the infant's body. After this, he blesses the font, pouring consecrated oil into it twice, and making, each time, three different signs of the cross with meiron, all which ceremonies are accompanied with several long prayers. As soon as the benediction of the font is over, he plunges the infant into it three times successively. At the first, he dips one third part of the infant's body into the water, saying, *I baptize thee in the*

name of the Father; he then dips him lower, about two thirds, adding, *I baptize thee in the name of the Son*; at the third operation, he plunges him all over, saying, *I baptize thee in the name of the Holy Ghost*. The Sacraments of Confirmation, and of the Blessed Eucharist, are administered after this Baptism, which is solemnized before mass; and the Communion is administered to the infant towards the end.

The confirmation of the *Copts* consists in several long prayers, and repeating the unctions on the infant, the same as Confirmation. after baptism. The priests among the Abyssinians, perform their unction with *chrism*, in the form of a crosa, upon the forehead of the baptized infant, saying, *May this be the unction of the grace of the Holy Ghost*; *Amen*. When he anoints the infant's nose and lips, he says, *This is the pledge of the kingdom of heaven*. At the application of the ointment to his ears, he uses this form, *The sacred unction of our Lord Jesus Christ*: in anointing the arms, knees, and legs, *I anoint thee*, says he, *with this sacred unction, in the name of the Father, &c.* To conclude, the priest repeats a prayer over the infants that have been baptized, and afterwards confirmed, in the form of a benediction, puts crowns upon their heads, and then gives them the communion.

When the Abyssinians celebrate the eucharist, the sacramental bread is prepared in a convenient place, contiguous to the church, but no woman is permitted to touch the flour from which it is made. The bread is brought from the vestry to the altar by proper officers, who go in solemn procession before it, with crosses, censers, and little bells. During the celebration of mass, a curtain is drawn, to conceal what is done at the altar from the eyes of the congregation.

They administer the communion in both kinds; but with these restrictions, according to Father le Brun;—that in the Ethiopian, as well as in all other Eastern churches, the celebrant gives the *blood*, or wine, in the chalice to none but the priests; he administers it to the deacons in a small spoon; and the laity receive only some particles of the body, dipped in the blood; the king excepted, who receives the communion in both kinds.

The Abyssinian churches are all situated directly from west to east, that the people when they pray may turn their faces eastward. The altar stands by itself, within the Churches. sanctuary, under a kind of dome, supported by four pilasters; and is called by the Ethiopians, their ark;

the form or figure of it being, according to their tradition, the same as that of the Jews: which they pretend is actually in existence, and is to be seen at this very time in the Church of Axuma. There are two curtains before the sanctuary, with little bells at the bottom of them, on which account nobody can go in nor come out, without making them ring. As the congregation always stand during the performance of divine service, they have no seats in their churches; they are allowed, however, to rest themselves upon supporters or crutches, a great number of which are provided for that purpose, and deposited on the outside of the churches. The people always go into the church barefooted; and for that reason the pavement is covered with tapestry. No person presumes to talk, blow his nose, nor so much as to turn his head aside, whilst at church. The men are separated from the women, and the latter are placed as far distant as possible from the sanctuary. They have lamps burning in their churches even in the day-time, and they frequently illumine a great number of wax-tapers.

They are very strict and severe in the observance of their fasts. During their Lent, they eat but once a day, and that after sunset. On Wednesdays and Fridays they sit down to table at three o'clock; and, in order Fasts. not to be in the least mistaken in point of time, they measure their shadows, which, when they are just seven feet in length is the critical minute. The Abyssinian priests are so precise, that they defer the celebration of the mass till the evening, upon a fast-day, for fear of transgressing the injunction of fasting, by receiving even the elements. They do not think themselves obliged, however, to fast, till they have children of a marriageable age; but as the heat of the climate soon brings the natives to maturity, there are but very few at twenty-five who are exempt from that penance.

Among the Abyssinians, the particular person for whose spiritual comfort this benediction of the lamp is pronounced, is obliged, according to the direction of the ritual, if his strength will permit him, to draw Benediction
of the Lamb. near to the celebrant, who places him in a convenient seat, with his face towards the east. The priests then holds the Book of the Gospels and a cross over his head, and lay their hands upon him. The senior priest then reads the prayers appointed for that particular occasion; after which they raise the sick person up, give him a blessing with the Book of the Gospels, and rehearse the Lord's prayer, the Creed, &c. Then they raise the cross above his head, and at

the same time pronounce the general absolution over him which is inserted in their liturgy. If time will permit, there are several other prayers added, and a formal procession is made all round the church, with the sacred lamp, and several lighted wax tapers, to beg of God that he would graciously vouchsafe to heal the person for whom their prayers are desired. If the patient happens to be so far indisposed as to be incapable of approaching the altar himself, some friend is substituted in his room. When the procession is over, the priests perform the usual unctions upon the sick person, and afterwards a single unction upon one another.

A writer gives the following description of one of their weddings, at which he was personally present. The bridegroom and the bride attended at the church-door, where a kind of nuptial-bed, or couch, was erected for that purpose. The *abuna*, or patriarch seated them both upon it, and then went in procession round them with the cross and censer. After that he laid his hands upon their heads, and said, *As ye this day become one flesh, ye must be both of one heart and one will*. After a short harangue, suitable to the foregoing words, he proceeded to the celebration of the mass. The newly-married couple attended, and, after it was over, he pronounced the nuptial benediction.

Gaia has furnished us with some other ceremonies observed by them in their nuptials, amongst which the following are the most remarkable. "The celebrant, after he has cut a lock of hair from the heads of the bridegroom and the bride, and dipped them into wine mingled with honey, exchanges the locks, and places that which belonged to the former on the head of the latter, and so *vice versa*, in the very same place from whence they were taken, sprinkling them at the same time with holy water. After this ceremony is over, the newly-married couple, attended by their friends, go home, and never stir abroad for a month. When the bride goes out, she wears a black veil over her face, which she never turns up till after the expiration of six months, except she proves with child." We have before taken particular notice of the nuptial crowns, amongst the ceremonies of the Greeks; and among the Abyssinians, these crowns are put upon the heads of the newly-married couple, and they wear them for the first eight days; after which, the priest who put them on, takes them off again, with much formality, and pronounces several prayers.

Each monastery has two churches, one for the men and the

other for the women. Their musical instruments are little drums, which they hang about their necks, and beat with both hands. The gravest ecclesiastic amongst them looks upon this drum as an ornament, and always wears one. They have likewise pilgrim's staffs, which they strike upon the ground, and regulate the motion of their bodies to the cadence. They always begin with a beat of the foot, and then play gently on these drums: after which, they lay them aside in order to clap hands, jump, dance, and bawl as loud as their power will permit them. These acclamations are intended as an act of devotion, the merit of which is grounded on a passage in the Psalms of David, in which he invites all nations to cry aloud, and clap their hands for joy!

To conclude, the Abyssinians commemorate their deceased friends, and have proper prayers for them. The collection of canons which they make use of, enjoins them to offer the sacrifice of the mass, and to pray for the dead, on the third and seventh day, at the month's end, and at the conclusion of the year. They have prayers, likewise, for the invocation of the saints, as well as legends, relics, and miracles *without number*.

Sec. 7.—Religious Tenets and Customs of the Armenians.

The *Armenians*, from Armenia, a province of Asia, consisting of the modern Turcomania and part of Persia, were formerly a branch of the Greek Church. They professed the same faith, and acknowledged the same subjection to the see of Constantinople, till nearly the middle of the sixth century, when the supposed heresy of the Monophysites spread through Africa, and Asia, and comprehended the Armenians among its votaries. But, though the members of this church still agree with the other Monophysites in the principal doctrine of that sect, respecting the *unity* of the divine and human nature in Christ, they differ from them in so many points of faith, worship, and discipline, that they hold no communion with that branch of the Monophysites who are Jacobites in the more limited sense of that term, nor with the Copts or the Abyssinians.

The Armenians allow and accept the articles of faith according to the council of Nice, and use the Apostle's Creed. With respect to the Trinity, they agree with the Greeks in acknowledging three persons in one divine nature, and that the Holy Ghost proceeds only from the Father. They believe that Christ descended into hell, and liberated thence all the souls of the damned, by the grace

General account.

Tenets.

and favour of his glorious presence; that this liberation was not for ever, nor by a plenary pardon or remission, but only till the end of the world, when the souls of the damned shall again be returned into eternal flames.

The Armenians believe, that neither the souls nor the bodies of any saints or prophets departed this life, are in heaven, except the blessed Virgin, and the prophet Elias. Yet, notwithstanding their opinion that the saints shall not be admitted into heaven till the day of judgment, by a certain imitation of the Greek and Latin churches, they invoke those saints with prayers, reverence and adore their pictures and images, and burn to them lamps and candles. The saints commonly invoked by them, are all the prophets and apostles; and also St. Silvester, St. Savorich, &c.

They worship after the Eastern manner, by prostrating their bodies, and kissing the ground three times. When they first enter the church, they uncover their heads,

Worship. and cross themselves three times; but afterwards they cover their heads, and sit cross-legged on carpets. The greatest part of their public divine service is performed in the morning, before it is light. They are very devout on vigils to feasts, and on Saturday evenings, when they all go to church, and, after their return home, perfume their houses with incense, and adorn their little pictures with lamps. In their monasteries, the whole Psalter of David is read over every twenty-four hours; but in the cities and parochial churches, the Psalter is divided into eight portions, and each portion into eight parts, at the end of each of which is said the Gloria Patri, &c.

The rites and ceremonies of the Armenian church greatly resemble those of the Greeks. Their liturgies also are essentially the same, or at least ascribed to the same

Rites and ceremonies. authors. The fasts, which they observe annually, are not only more numerous, but kept with greater rigour and mortification than is usual in any other Christian community. They mingle the whole course of the year with fasting; and there is not a single day, which is not appointed either for a fast or a festival. They commemorate our Lord's nativity on the 6th of January, and thus celebrate in one festival his birth, epiphany, and baptism.

The Armenians practise the trine immersion, which they consider as essential to baptism. After baptism, they apply the *enyrop* or *chrism*, and anoint the forehead, eyes, ears, breast, palms of the hands, and soles of the feet, with consecrated oil, in the form of a cross. Then they administer to

the child the eucharist, with which they only rub its lips. The eucharist is celebrated only on Sundays and festivals. They do not mix the wine with water, nor put leaven into their bread, as do the Greeks. They steep the bread in the wine, and thus the communicant receives both kinds together,—a form different from that of the Latin, Greek, and reformed churches. They differ from the Greeks in administering bread unleavened, made like a wafer; and, from the Romans, in giving both kinds to the laity.

Before any persons, whether men or women, presume to enter their churches, they pull their shoes off at the church-door, where there are chests to lock them up in, during the time of divine service. On entering, they cross themselves three times, but after the same form, according to Father le Brun, as is observed in the Latin Church. The men are all uncovered. The clergy themselves are without shoes in the choir; but those who officiate in the sanctuary put on black slippers. During the celebration of the mass and other parts of divine service, all the communicants either stand or sit upon the ground, the men cross-legged, and the women upon their heels. Many of the people stay a long time in the church, and are often there by break of day. Father Monier relates, that he was very much affected with the modest deportment observed in the exercise of their devotion; and, Ricaut says, his heart was melted with the warmth and ardency of their piety, which is considerably augmented at certain seasons, particularly in the Holy Week.

In their fasts they are much more rigorous than the Greeks, and no dispensation is allowed on any account. During the forty days of their Lent, which precedes their Easter, they must eat nothing but herbs, roots, Fasts. beans, peas, and the like, and no greater quantity of them than is just sufficient to support nature. The Armenians, however, according to Tournefort, are allowed to eat fish on Sundays. To these acts of self-denial, we must add another, which is the natural result of an habitual practice of such long and severe fasts, viz.—their abstinence from women. Their most rigid devotees look upon a breach of this mode of mortification, as a crime of the most enormous nature. They have an established custom of having no mass on fast-days and during their Lent; but on Sundays only, there is a kind of spiritual humiliation. This mass is celebrated at noon, and is called *low-mass*; because there is a curtain drawn before the altar, and the priest, who is unseen, pronounces nothing with an audible voice, but the gospel and the creed. All their

fasts in general are observed with the same strictness and austerity as their grand Lent.

Their churches have the front towards the east, in order that the priest, who celebrates mass, and the whole congregation,

Churches. tion, may stand with their faces directly to that quarter. The church is divided generally into four parts, that is to say, the sanctuary, the choir, the space peculiarly allotted for the lay-men, and that appropriated to the service of the women; which is always the nearest to the door. The choir is divided from the place allotted for the men by rails about six feet high. The sanctuary is five or six steps higher than the choir. In the centre of the sanctuary stands the altar, which is small and insulated, in order that the priest may thurify and go round it. The majority of the churches have a dome with several windows in it, to give light to the sanctuary. There are no seats in that part of the church, because both the celebrant and his assistants are obliged to stand all the time of divine service in that holy place. According to the directions, however, in their liturgy, the priest is ordered to sit down during the lesson out of the prophets, and the epistle, and then, in case the celebrant should be a bishop, or a priest well stricken in years, he is indulged with a chair. Generally, there are small rails between the two stair-cases leading from the sanctuary to the choir; and those who serve at the altar are allowed to lean against or rest themselves upon them. The vestry stands on the left side of the sanctuary on entering the church; and on the right side opposite to it, there is, in all great churches, another vestry, which is made use of as a treasury. There is but one altar generally in each church. The choir is the place peculiarly appropriated to the service of the clergy; and the laity are never admitted into that division. There is no seat but the bishop's, which is erected on the left-hand side of the door; but when there are several bishops present, there are stools brought for them, and set on each side of the episcopal chair:—the others either stand all the time of divine service, or sit cross-legged on the ground, according to the custom of the country. The choristers have neither stool nor desk, but when the lessons are to be read there is a folding desk brought out, and set in the centre, which is covered with an embroidered veil. Neither is there any fixed pulpit erected for the preacher; but when there is a sermon, a moveable pulpit is generally placed at the door of the choir: the patriarch, however, preaches in the sanctuary. As to the third and fourth divisions of the church, there is nothing worthy of notice in

either of them. Such churches as are poor have their pavements covered with matting, but those which are rich with fine carpets; and to prevent the people from soiling them, a sufficient number of spitting-pots are provided. A similar reason may be assigned for pulling off their shoes at the church-door.

In those cities where the Armenian merchants carry on a great trade, the churches are embellished with beautiful pictures and rich tapestry; particularly the sanctuary, which, at all times when there is no celebration of the mass, is concealed by a fine curtain. The sacred vessels and vestments are equally grand and magnificent; and whilst the Greeks have only two insignificant lights, scarcely sufficient to enable the priest to read mass, the Armenian churches are surrounded with illuminations in great abundance.

The altar is uncovered at all times when there is no divine service; but always covered during the celebration of their mass. The altars are but small and without relics: formerly the cross, and the book of the gospels only, were placed upon them. The Armenians, in imitation of the Latins, have for many years past placed their candlesticks there, and very frequently a great number of them; and fill up the steps with crosses. A number of lamps are always burning during the celebration of mass; and one particularly in the centre of the sanctuary, which is never extinguished. The faithful offer wax-tapers to be burnt in mass-time. According to Father Monier, two masses are very seldom said in one day at the same church, or if there should, there is but one at each altar. Nothing but high mass is celebrated amongst them, and that at break of day, except on the vigil of the Epiphany and Easter-eve, when it is celebrated in the evening.

Children generally leave the choice of the person whom they are to marry, as well as the settlement of the marriage articles, to their parents or nearest relations.

Their marriages, according to Tournefort, are the result of the mother's choice, who very seldom advises with any persons upon the subject except her husband; and even that deference is paid with no small reluctance. After the terms of accommodation are settled and adjusted, the mother of the young man pays a visit to the young lady, accompanied by a priest and two venerable matrons, and presents her with a ring, as the first tacit promise of her intended husband. He generally makes his appearance at the same time, with all the seriousness he is able to assume, or perhaps with all the perplexity of one who has

Nuptial Ceremonies.

not the liberty to make his own choice. Tournefort assures us, that this serious deportment is carried to such a pitch, that at the first interview even a smile would be looked upon as indecent, and even the young virgin at that time conceals either her charms or defects, under an impenetrable veil. The priest who attends on this occasion, is always treated with a glass of good liquor. The Armenians never publish the bans of matrimony, as is customary with other Christian churches. The evening before the wedding, the bridegroom and the bride send each other some presents. On the wedding-day, there is a procession on horseback, and the bridegroom rides in the front, from his mistress's house, having on his head a gold or silver network, or a flesh-coloured gauze veil, according to his quality. This network hangs down to his waist. In his right hand he holds one end of a girdle, whilst the bride, who follows him on horseback, covered with a white veil, which reaches down to her horse's legs, has hold of the other. Two attendants walk on each side of her horse, and hold the reins. The bride is sometimes conducted to church between two matrons, and the bridegroom walks on foot accompanied by a friend, who carries his sabre.

The relations and friends, (generally young men and maids,) either on horseback or on foot, accompany them to church with great order and decorum in the procession, having wax-tapers in their hands, and a band of music marching before them. They alight at the church-door, and the bridegroom and bride walk up to the very steps of the sanctuary, still holding the ends of the girdle in their hands. They there stand side by side, and the priest having put the Bible upon their heads, pronounces the sacramental form; he then performs the ceremony of the ring, and says mass. The nuptial benediction is expressed in the following terms. *Bless, O Lord! this marriage with thy everlasting benediction; grant that this man and this woman may live in the constant practice of faith, hope, and charity; endow them with sobriety; inspire them with holy thoughts, and secure their bed from all manner of pollution, &c.*

When an infant dies under nine years of age, the father, or his nearest relation, provides prayers to Almighty God, eight days successively, for the soul of the deceased; and during all that time pays the expenses of the priest to whose care that act of devotion is intrusted. On the ninth day the solemn service for the soul is performed. Those who are pious and in good circumstances have a particular day set apart for the commem-

Funeral ceremonies.

ration of their relations, and for the due celebration of all the requisite offices. Father Monier assures us also, that it is a received custom amongst them to visit the monuments of the dead upon Easter Monday; at which time the men sigh and groan, but the women actually howl; and this they call the visible testimonies of their sorrow and concern. These sighs and groans of the men, and these howlings of the women, however, are soon over; and a more agreeable scene immediately succeeds; they all withdraw under the refreshing shade of some luxuriant tree, where an elegant entertainment erases the idea of affliction: sorrow is now drowned in liquors, and the diversions of the afternoon are altogether as extravagant and excessive as their morning lamentations.

CHAPTER II.

RELIGIOUS TENETS, CUSTOMS, CEREMONIES, &c. OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

SEC. I.—TENETS, CUSTOMS, &c.

THE Roman Catholics hold all the fundamental tenets of the Christian religion. They worship one God in three persons; viz. the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost: and they maintain that they are to put their confidence in God alone, through the merits of ^{Roman Catholics.} *his incarnate Son, who was crucified and rose from the dead for our justification.* They receive with the same certainty, all the other articles of the Apostles' creed. The Protestants do not differ with them in relation to the fundamentals of this belief; but affirm that the Catholics have made a great number of additions, some of which are repugnant to the Apostles' creed, and tend very much to weaken the fundamental tenets. They further affirm that the Roman Catholics are too indulgent in their toleration of an infinite number of customs, which deviate from the spirit of Christianity.

The following is a summary of the tenets held by the Roman Catholic church, according to Mr. Bos- ^{Tenets of the} *suet's Exposition of the Catholic Catechism,* ^{Roman Catholics.} and which on good authority is alleged to be conformable to the decrees of the famous council of Trent.

"To begin," says he, "with the adoration which is due to God, the Catholic Church teaches, that it principally consists in believing that he is the Creator and Lord of all things; and that it is the duty of Catholics to adore here to him with all the faculties of their souls, through faith, hope, and charity, as being the sole object that can make them happy by the communication of that sovereign good, which is himself.

Worship
of God.

"This internal adoration which they render unto God in spirit and in truth, is attended with its external signs, of which sacrifice is the principal, and can be offered to God alone; because sacrifice was ordained to make a public and solemn acknowledgment of God's sovereignty over us, and of our absolute dependance upon him.

"The same Church teaches, that all religious worship ought to terminate in God, as its necessary end; and that if the veneration which is paid to the Blessed Virgin and the saints may be termed religious, it is because it relates of necessity to God.

Adoration of
the Blessed
Virgin.

"The Catholic Church, in telling us that it is beneficial to pray to the saints, teaches us to pray to them in that spirit of charity, and according to that order of brotherly love, which inclines us to request the assistance of our brethren living upon earth; and the catechism of the Council of Trent concludes from this doctrine, that if the quality of Mediator, which the Holy Scriptures attribute to Jesus Christ, received the least prejudice from the intercession of the saints who dwell with God, it would receive no less an injury from the mediation of the faithful, who live with us upon earth.

Veneration
of Saints.

"This catechism demonstrates the great difference there is between the manner of imploring God's aid and assistance, and that of the saints: for it expressly declares, *that the Catholics pray to God either to bestow on them some blessing, or to deliver them from some misfortune; but since the saints are more acceptable in his sight than they are, they beg of them to be their advocates only, and to procure for them such things as they want. For which reason, the Catholics make use of two forms of prayer widely different from each other, for when they make their applications to God himself, they say, 'HAVE MERCY ON US, HEAR US!' But when they address themselves to the saints, they only say, 'PRAY FOR US!'* By which we are to understand, that in whatever terms those prayers which are directed to the saints are conceived, the in-

tention of the Church and of her faithful servants always reduces them to that form."

Considering, however, that this honour, which the Catholic Church pays to the saints, principally appears before their images and sacred relics, it will be proper to explain the belief of the Church in both these particulars. Reverence
for images and
Sacred Relics.

In regard to images, the Catholics are expressly forbidden by the *Council of Trent*, to believe there is any virtue in them of so heavenly a nature as to prove an inducement to pay divine adoration to them: and they are enjoined to ask no favours of them, to put no trust nor confidence in them, but to reverence them only in honour of the originals which they represent.

The respect which is paid to relics, in imitation of the primitive Church, must be understood in the same manner. They look upon the bodies of the saints as having been victims offered up to God by martyrdom or penance, without in any way diminishing that duty and respect which they owe to God himself, &c.

As to the point of justification, they believe *That their sins are freely remitted by the divine mercy, for the sake of JESUS CHRIST; and that they are freely justified, because neither faith nor good works, which precede their justification, can merit that favour.* Justification
of sinners.

As to the merit of good works, the Catholic Church, teaches, that eternal life ought to be proposed to the children of God, both as a grace mercifully promised them by the means and mercies of our Lord JESUS CHRIST, and as a reward faithfully bestowed on them for their good works and merits, in consequence of that promise. Sanctifying
grace opposed
to good works
and free will. These are the express terms of the Council of Trent. But that the pride of mankind should not flatter itself with the idea of a presumptuous merit, the same Council teaches, that the whole worth and value of Christian works arise from a sanctifying grace, which is freely granted us in the name of JESUS CHRIST; and is the result of that constant influence which this divine Head has upon his members.

The Catholics openly declare, that they cannot be acceptable to God, but in and through JESUS CHRIST; nor do they apprehend how any other sense can be imputed to their belief. They place all the hopes of their salvation so perfectly in him alone, that they daily direct the following petition to God in the sacrifice: *Vouchsafe, O God! to grant unto us sinners, thy* Salvation
through Jesus
Christ only.

servants, who trust in the multitude of thy mercies, some share and society with thy blessed apostles and martyrs, into the number of whom we beseech thee to receive us, having no regard to our own merit ; but pardoning us through thy grace in the name of JESUS CHRIST our Lord.

The Catholics, without exception, teach that JESUS CHRIST only, who was both God and man, was able, by the infinite

dignity of his person, to offer up a sufficient satisfaction to God for our sins ; but having made

Nature of the atonement. an abundant recompense for them, he had power to apply that infinite satisfaction to us in two several ways ; either by an absolute remission, without the least reserve of any penalty ; or by exchanging a greater for a less, that is to say, an eternal for a temporal punishment. As the first is the most perfect and conformable to his divine goodness, he makes use of that, first of all, in the sacrament of baptism ; and they believe, that he uses the second - in the forgiveness which he grants to those who, after baptism, relapse into sin, he being in some measure compelled thereto, through the ingratitude of those who have abused his first favours ; for which reason they are to suffer some temporal punishment, though the eternal be taken off.

In order to satisfy the duties imposed upon them by their religion, the Catholics are subject to certain penances, which

ought to be performed on their parts with repentance and humiliation ; and it is the necessity of these works of expiation, which obliged the primitive Church to inflict those punishments upon penitents, that are termed canonical.

When the Church, therefore, imposes those painful and laborious penances upon sinners, and they undergo them with patience and humility, it is called satisfaction ; and when the Church shows any regard either to the ardent devotion of the penitents, or to other good works which she prescribes, and remits any part of the punishment due to them, it is termed indulgence.

The Council of Trent proposes nothing more relating to indulgences, than that *the Church had the power of granting them from JESUS CHRIST, and that the practice of them is wholesome ; which custom, that Council adds, ought still be preserved, though with moderation, lest ecclesiastical discipline should be weakened by too great a toleration : from whence it is manifest, that the articles of indulgences only regard discipline.*

It is the belief of the Catholics, that those who depart this

life in peace and charity, and are, notwithstanding, subject to those temporal punishments which divine justice has reserved for them, must suffer them in Purgatory. the other world; and for that reason the whole Christian Church in the earliest ages, offered up both prayers, alms, and sacrifices for the faithful who have died in peace, and in the communion of the Church, with a lively hope and expectation of their being relieved by those acts of devotion. This is what the Council of Trent proposes that the Catholics should believe with respect to souls confined in purgatory, without determining either the nature of their punishments, or several other things of the like kind; in regard to which that holy Council exacts considerable precaution, and particularly condemns those who say any thing that is uncertain and precarious.

The sacraments of the New Testament are not only sacred tokens of grace, or seals by which it is confirmed to them, but they are also instruments of the Holy Ghost, which apply and confer it on them by virtue of The seven Sacraments. the words pronounced, and the outward action performed, on their behalf, provided they do not prevent the effects of it by their own evil dispositions.

When God annexes so high a prerogative to external signs, which in their nature bear no proportion to such excellent effects, he plainly signifies that, independently of all that the Catholics can do inwardly through their good inclinations, a special operation of the Holy Ghost, and a particular application of the merits of our blessed Saviour, represented to us by the sacraments, must still intervene to sanctify them. This doctrine, therefore, cannot be rejected without offering an indignity to the merit of JESUS CHRIST; and to the influence of the divine power in their regeneration.

They acknowledge seven signs or sacraments, ordained by JESUS CHRIST as the ordinary means by which the new man is sanctified and made perfect. Their divine institution appears from the sacred Scriptures, either by the express words of JESUS CHRIST himself, or by grace, which is accordingly annexed to them, and necessarily denotes an order from God.

As infants cannot supply the defects of baptism, by acts of faith, hope, and charity, or by any vow hereafter to receive that sacrament, the Catholics believe, that if they do not actually receive it, they are in no wise Baptism. partakers of the grace of redemption; and so dying in the guilt of Adam, have no share at all in JESUS CHRIST.

The Catholics say that imposition of hands, practised by

the blessed apostles for the confirmation of the faithful against Confirmation. persecutions, having its chief effect in the internal descent of the Holy Ghost, and the infusion of his gracious gifts, ought not to have been rejected by their adversaries on pretence that the Holy Ghost does not at present descend visibly upon them. Indeed, all Christian Churches, from the time of the apostles, have religiously preserved that practice, making use likewise of the sacred ointment in baptism, to show the virtue of that sacrament by a more express representation of the unction of the Holy Ghost.

They believe that it was the will of JESUS CHRIST, that those who have submitted themselves to the authority of the Confession Church by baptism, and have afterwards violated the laws of the Gospel, shall be subject to the and absolute decision of the same Church in the tribunal of penance, at which it exercises the full power granted to it of absolution and remission of sins.

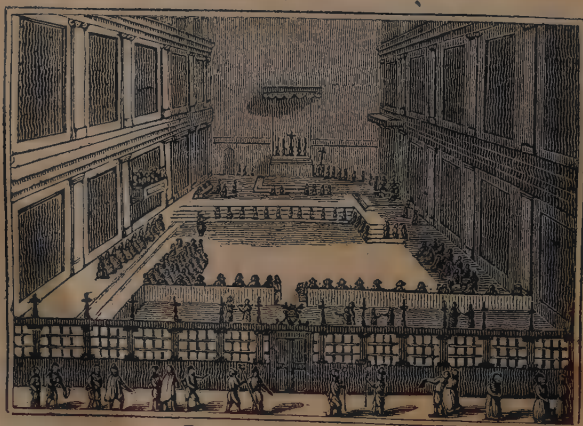
The terms of the commission which is given to the ministers of the Church to forgive sins, are so general, that it would be presumptuous to reduce it only to public sins; and as, when they pronounce absolution in the name of JESUS CHRIST, they only observe the express terms of that commission, so the sentence is looked upon as passed by JESUS CHRIST himself, in whose name they are appointed judges. He is the invisible high priest, who absolves the penitent inwardly, whilst the priest performs the same office externally.

The Holy Ghost having annexed to extreme unction, an express promise of remission of sins, and the relief of the sick, nothing more can be required to make this sacred ceremony a real sacrament. It is to be observed, however, that the sick person, according to the doctrine of the Council of Trent, receives more consolation and relief in soul than in body; and as spiritual benefit is ever the principal object of the new law, it is that which the Catholics chiefly expect from this holy unction, in case they are duly prepared for it; whereas corporeal relief in sickness is only granted unto them with respect to their eternal salvation, according to the secret designs of Divine Providence, and the different degrees of preparation and faith, which are to be met with in the faithful.

Upon considering that Jesus Christ has given a new turn to the holy state of marriage, (*see Matthew, chap. xix. v. 5,*) by reducing it to the constant and indissoluble Matrimony. union of two persons only; and likewise reflect-



The Keys presented the Pope. p. 268.



Pope's Chapel. p. 268.

ing that this inseparable union is a mark or token of his eternal union with his church, it will be very easy to comprehend that the marriage of the faithful is attended by the Holy Ghost and the grace of God.

The imposition of hands, which the Catholic spiritual ministers receive at their ordination, being attended, according to their belief, with so immediate an influence from the Holy Ghost, (see 1 *Timothy*, chap. iv. and 2 *Tim.* chap. i.) and with so perfect an infusion of ^{Imposition of hands.} grace, ought to be reckoned also among the number of sacraments.

The real presence of the body and blood of JESUS CHRIST in the sacrament of the *Eucharist*, is firmly established by the words of the institution, which the Catholics understand in the literal sense; for they maintain ^{The Eucharist.} that there is not any thing in the words which JESUS CHRIST makes use of in the institution of this mystery, that induces them to take them figuratively; and this reason is sufficient, in their opinion, to determine them in favour of the former.

The ceremony of the Eucharist may be considered as one of the fundamental pillars of the Catholic religion, and we shall therefore give the exposition of it, as laid down by the Romish ritual. "It is evident," say the Catholics, "that these words of our Saviour, *Take, eat, this is my body which is given for you*, show us, that as the ancient Jews were not only united in spirit at the sacrifice of the victims which were offered up for them, but were also partakers of the flesh which was sacrificed, and which was also a sign to them of the share they had in that oblation; so JESUS CHRIST having offered up himself a sacrifice for us, it was his pleasure that we should in reality partake of the flesh of that adorable victim; in order that the actual communication of it might be a lasting testimony to each of us in particular, that he had not only assumed his body, but made a sacrifice of it for us."

"Thus the eating of the body, and drinking the blood of the Son of God, is as real at the holy communion, as grace, expiation of sins, and participation of the sacrifice of Jesus Christ, is actual and effectual under the new covenant.

"As he was willing, however, to try our faith in this mystery, and free us at the same time from the horror of eating his flesh, and drinking his blood, under their proper species, it was necessary for him to give them to us disguised under a species of another nature; and if these considerations induced him to let us eat the flesh of our sacrifice, in a manner differ-

ent from the Jews, yet he was not for that reason obliged to subtract any thing from its reality and substance.

"It appears, therefore, that for the accomplishment of the ancient types, and in order to put us in the actual possession of the sacrifice that was offered up for our sins, it was the intention of Jesus Christ to give us in reality his body and blood, and this does not admit of any denial. We can never agree that those words should be received only in a figurative sense, because the Son of God, who was so careful to explain every thing to his apostles which he taught them under parables and figures, said nothing of that kind to explain this matter; and it is thence evident that he left these words in their natural signification. It is as easy for the Son of God to cause his body to be in the Eucharist, by saying, *This is my body*, as to cure a woman of her disease by saying, *Woman, be thou free from thine infirmity*; or to preserve a young man's life by saying to his father, *Thy son liveth*; or, in short, to pardon the sins of him who was sick of the palsy, by saying to him, *Thy sins are forgiven thee*."

Having thus laid down the tenets of the Church relating to these words of Jesus Christ, *This is my body*, the following is the opinion of the Catholics concerning those which he added to them, *This do in remembrance of me*. "It is evident," they say, "that it was the design of the Son of God to oblige us thereby to commemorate the death which he suffered for our salvation; and St. Paul concludes from this passage, that *we exhibit the death of the Lord* in that mystery. Now we must not persuade ourselves that this commemoration of our Lord's death excludes the real presence of his body; on the contrary, if we reflect on what we have just explained, it will evidently appear, that this remembrance is grounded upon the real presence; for as the Jews, at the eating of their peace-offerings, remembered they had been sacrificed for them; so likewise, when we eat the flesh of Jesus Christ, our victim, we ought to remember that he died for us. It is the same flesh, therefore, eaten by the faithful, which not only revives in us the memory of his being offered up for us, but confirms us in the truth of it; and from being able to say that this solemn confirmation which Jesus Christ enjoins us to make, excludes the real presence of his flesh, we find, on the contrary, that this affectionate remembrance of him, required of us at the holy table, as being offered up for us, is grounded upon that same flesh being really taken there; since, in reality, we cannot possibly forget that he gave his body as a sacrifice for us, when we see that he still gives us daily the same to eat.'

On this head the Catholics say, "As it was not meet and proper that our senses should perceive any thing in this mystery of faith, so neither was it convenient that any thing should be changed, with regard to them, ^{Transsubstantiation.} in the bread and wine of the Eucharist. Upon

which account, as we perceive the same species, and feel the same effects as before, in that sacrament, we ought not to be in any way surprised, if sometimes, and in some sense, it should go under the same denomination. Yet our faith acknowledges no other substances on this occasion, than that which is meant by those very words; that is to say, the very body and blood of Christ, into which the bread and wine are changed; and this is what we call *Transsubstantiation*."

"It is to be observed, that there are two actions in this mysterious sacrament, really distinct, though relative to each other. The one is the *consecration* of the bread and wine, which are thereby changed into the body and blood; and the other is the *manducation*, whereby we are made partakers of that heavenly food."

"Thus, the Son of God is set on the sacred table, by virtue of those words, clothed in the signs which represent his death; and this is wrought by the consecration. This religious action, moreover, carries with it an acknowledgment of the divine sovereignty, inasmuch as JESUS CHRIST, who is actually present, renews and perpetuates the memory of his obedience, even to his dying on the cross; for which reason nothing can be wanting to make it a true sacrifice."

"When we consider what JESUS CHRIST performs in this mystery, and that we see him, through faith, actually present on the holy table under these signs of death, we unite ourselves to him in this condition; we present him to God as our only oblation, and our only propitiator through his blood, protesting that we have nothing to offer up to him, but JESUS CHRIST and the infinite merit of his death. We consecrate all our prayers through that divine sacrifice, and when we offer up JESUS CHRIST to God, we are at the same time instructed to offer up ourselves as living sacrifices to the Divine Majesty, in and through him."

"The Church being instituted by God to be the guardian of the scriptures and of tradition, from her it is ^{Authority of the Church.} that we receive the canonical writings.

"Being thus inseparably united to the sacred authority of the Church by means of the scriptures, which we receive from her; so from her likewise we do receive our tradition, and by means thereof are taught the true sense of the scriptures.

Whence it comes to pass, that the Church professes to teach nothing as coming from herself, nor to invent any new doctrine, but only follows and declares divine Revelation by the inward direction of the Holy Ghost, graciously given to her for her guide and instructor.

“The dissension which arose, relating to the ceremonies of the law, in the Apostle’s time, demonstrates that the Holy Ghost makes the Church his interpreter; and their acts have taught all ages to come, by the manner of deciding that controversy, the authority by which all dissensions of that kind are to be concluded. So that, whenever there shall arise any disputes, which may create a division among the faithful, the Church shall always interpose her authority; and her bishops being assembled, shall say after the Apostles, *It seemed good to the Holy Ghost, and to us*; and when she hath once spoken, her children shall be taught not to make new inquiries into the articles she hath resolved, but humbly to submit to her decisions. In complying herewith, we shall imitate St. Paul and Silas, who delivered that first decree of the Apostles to the faithful, and who, far from suffering them to re-examine what had been determined upon, *went from town to town, and charged them to keep the institutions of the Apostles*.

“This is the manner in which the children of God submit to the decision of the Church, believing they hear the oracles of the Holy Ghost from her mouth; for which reason in the creed, after we have repeated, *I believe in the Holy Ghost*, we immediately after add, *the holy Catholic Church*. By which article we oblige ourselves to acknowledge a perpetual and infallible truth in the universal Church, since that very Church, in which we believe at all times, would cease so to be, should she cease to teach that truth which God was pleased to reveal. Whoever, therefore, suspects that the Church makes an ill use of her authority, to establish the spirit of untruth, has no faith in *him* by whom the Church is governed.”

According to the Catechism of the Council of Trent, the Roman Catholic Church is one, visible, holy, and catholic, or universal, established by the hand of God, on a solid basis, who has bestowed on it the power of opening the gates of heaven to all true believers, and shutting them to all heretics and infidels. It likewise has the power of pardoning and absolving sins, and excommunicating all those who are disobedient. This church is both triumphant and militant. The former portion is *the illustrious society of those blessed spirits and saints, who,*

Supremacy
of the Pope.

having triumphed over the world, the flesh, and the devil, enjoy everlasting happiness in peace and security. The latter is the congregation of all true believers upon earth, who are constantly obliged, during their whole lives, to resist the world, the flesh, and the devil. Jesus Christ is the immediate governor of that part of the church which is triumphant in the heavens; but, as the church militant required a visible head or director, he has substituted one in his room, who is accounted by all Catholics, as the sole and sovereign depository of the faith, and perpetual director of the belief of all true Christians.

This visible head is called the pope; but the Catholics are divided in their notions with regard to his power: some considering him to be inferior to a general council.

The pope takes place of all Christian princes, as the vicar of Jesus Christ here upon earth. Homage paid to him by Emperors.

The emperors, who, in former times, were the first princes in the Christian world, went to Rome to receive the imperial diadem from the hands of his holiness, and there solemnly promised and bound themselves by the Trinity, by the wood of the cross, and by the relics of the saints, to exalt and support the church and its head to the utmost of their power. The emperors, before their entrance into the city of Rome, took the oath; the form of which the *ceremonial* of the Roman church has preserved and transmitted to us. At length, after the church and its head had perfectly secured their own rights and privileges, the emperor was admitted; upon which occasion the clergy went out to meet him in their ceremonial habits, and tendered him the cross to kiss. His holiness, sitting on a throne, received him before the first portico of the Church of the Apostles. There his imperial majesty uncovered himself, and knelt down as soon as he saw the pope, who styled himself the Vicar of JESUS CHRIST. Afterwards he approached him gradually, with one knee always upon the ground; and, lastly, he kissed the feet of his holiness in a very devout manner, as a testimony of his respect to the Saviour of the World. But before his imperial majesty could be crowned, he was obliged to take a new oath, in which nothing was omitted that could establish the pope's prerogative, and the security of the church's domains. After the coronation there was a solemn procession, in which his imperial majesty appeared, for the first time, with his crown on his head, his sceptre in one hand, and a globe in the other; but as he went out of the *basilica*, he put all his regalia into the hands of one of his officers, in order to hold the stirrup, whilst the

pope mounted his horse; he even took the bridle, and for some time led the horse of the *servant of the servants of JESUS CHRIST*; who, to testify his humility, pretended he could not admit of so extraordinary a submission; nor did he consent till after several compliments on both sides, to receive, for the sake of JESUS CHRIST, the honour which his imperial majesty conferred upon him.

We may here observe, that after the emperor had taken the oath to his holiness, he was usually clothed in the *amice* and *surplice*. The canons of St. Peter did him the honour to admit him as a brother, and to look on him as a subject of the pope, to whom all preferments belonging to the hierarchy of the church are subject. Whenever it pleased his holiness to be carried on his servant's shoulders, the emperor was to be one of the assistants; he was to pour out water to wash the hands of his holiness before he sat down to table, and to give him his first plate, &c.

The Holy Father, being, in the opinion of the Roman Catholics, far above all kings, is accounted the vicegerent of God, and regent of the universe. Under this denomination he divided the new world between Spain and Portugal; he has a right to St. Paul's sword, and with it to give apostolical chastisement to those who despise or disregard his decisions relating to the Christian faith. He never rises from his pontifical throne, nor uncovers himself to any person whomsoever; nor does he ever condescend to honour any one with a salute, by the least inclination of his head. To his imperial majesty, indeed, he rises a little on his admittance to the kiss of peace, after he has paid his respects to the pope's feet. His holiness, however, sometimes salutes those princes who have the honour of an audience of him, with a slight inclination of his head; but then he is not in his pontifical robes; and, although he may condescend to be courteous and complaisant, yet he is under no obligation to adopt that mode of conduct. The pope's nuncio and legates take place of the ambassadors of all crowned heads.

An œcumenical council is an assembly which represents the whole body of the universal church. The name of council is given likewise to provincial and national assemblies of the clergy, who, at such times, however, represent only a part of the church.

Œcumenical councils are composed of ecclesiastical deputies from the sovereign powers of Christendom, who represent their respective nations, and also of other prelates, doctors, &c.

of particular churches, all assembled in a free place, where, without constraint, they may apply themselves to the reformation not only of manners and of doctrine, but also to the regulation and establishment of church discipline, &c. Thus assembled, they have authority to censure bishops, cardinals, and even his holiness himself, if his conduct be blame-worthy; they also possess power to depose any of them, when the good of religion requires it. In short, they form an assembly, which, by its superiority, being able to check the unjust proceedings of popes, by subjecting them to the church in points of faith, and declaring them schismatics and heretics whenever they deviate from it, has more than once proved fatal to the See of Rome. The assemblies of Pisa, of Constance, and Bale, are incontestable instances of the truth of this assertion.

In regard to the ceremonies observed at the calling of a council, as there has not been one since that of Trent, we shall describe them as they are found in Father Paul's History of that council, who assures us, Ceremonies observed at that there was not less debate nor less embarrass- the calling of ment in settling the rank and precedency of the a council. bishops, than if they had been convened to arrange affairs of the last importance to the state, &c. The fathers of the council also insisted upon having the assembly-room hung with tapestry, without which, they were apprehensive that the council might be deemed a body of tradesmen and mechanics. Pope Paul III. issued out one bull for calling the council, and a second for opening it; both of which were read and registered the first session. After a fast of three days, the legates and bishops, dressed in their pontifical robes, accompanied by their divines, the clergy of Trent, and all the people, went in solemn procession to the cathedral, where the first legate sung the mass of the Holy Ghost. Then the legates, in the pope's name, made an harangue, in which, after speaking of the occasion of that august assembly, they exhorted the fathers to lay aside all passion and prejudice, to judge righteously, to have no other view but the glory of God, and the good of the Church. After this exhortation they all knelt down, prayed awhile to themselves, and then the president recited the prayer which begins with *Adsumus Domine, Sancte Spiritus*. By this comprehensive and devout prayer, immediate aid is asked of the Holy Ghost, that he would please to guide and direct the council, to inspire the fathers with just judgments, to banish the spirit of disorder and discord far from them, and not to suffer them through ignorance to fall into error, or to be biassed by bribes, or to be surprised by outward appearances

The litanies were now sung, the deacon then read the gospel, *Si peccaverit frater tuus*; and after this the *Veni Creator* was likewise sung, and then the fathers seated themselves according to their respective ranks. The president having read the decree with an audible voice, and asked them if it was their pleasure to order and direct that the General and Holy Council of Trent should be opened to the glory of God, &c. each of the fathers, in his turn, answered *Placet*; the legates first, then the bishops, and the rest of the fathers; of the whole of which the notaries drew up a public act. Lastly, the *Te Deum* was sung, and the legates returned home after the first session, the cross being carried before them, and attended by the fathers, who had laid aside their pontifical habits. The ceremonies were almost the same at all the other sessions. In case the pope appears in person at the council, he and the fathers of the council, with the clergy of the city, go in procession to the hall of the assembly in their pontifical robes. The pope, at the opening of the first session, sings the mass of the Holy Ghost; after which the cardinals, and the fathers of the council, clothed in their robes of ceremony, salute his holiness in their turns. High mass is seldom sung at the other sessions. His holiness for the most part hears a private mass, and afterwards goes to the council in his scarlet cope, and with the mitre on his head; where, before the altar, he makes an harangue to the assembly, and then goes to his throne; the cardinals after that put on his sandals, and *quam dilecta*, a verse of one of the psalms is recited.

The pope's throne must be erected at the upper end of the assembly-room, and due care must be taken that there be two seats on the right and left side of the throne for the deacon's assistants. If the emperor appears in person at the council, he is to be seated next the pope, and at his right hand, but to be so situated as to acknowledge the superiority of his holiness; for the emperor's seat reaches no higher than the pope's footstool, and even this honour is reserved only for his imperial majesty, for there is but very little difference between the seats of kings and those of cardinals. In this hall, or assembly-room, there must be an altar for mass, with a cross upon it, also the Eucharist, and the relics of the saints.

The Roman ceremonial exhibits the order and rank of those who have a deliberative vote in council:—1. The pope, as head of the Christian Church. 2. The college of cardinals. 3. The patriarchs. 4. The primates. 5. The archbishops. 6. The bishops. 7. The abbots. 8. The generals of religious

Order and rank of members of a council.

orders. These, properly speaking, compose the council: the doctors, divines, &c. making their appearance only to assist or direct the fathers by their learning and their advice.

Four cardinals of several orders, who are the dean, or first cardinal-bishop, the first cardinal-priest, the first cardinal-deacon, and the cardinal *camerlengo*, or chamberlain, conjointly share the administration of affairs during the vacancy of the Holy See and the holding of the conclave. The three former are intrusted with the administration of justice, and all affairs relating to civil government. The latter breaks the seal of the church, called the fisherman's ring, in the presence of three cardinals; and the vice-chancellor breaks open the seal of the chancery, in the presence of the chief officers who belong to that court. The impression of the fisherman's ring is St. Peter holding a line with a bait to it in the water, and is made use of for those briefs which are sealed with red wax. The seal for bulls has the figure of St. Peter and St. Paul, with a cross on one side, and a bust with the name of the reigning pope on the other: when a pope dies, the bust and name are defaced, without damaging the rest of the seal; this last is only used for bulls sealed with lead. The *camerlengo* now orders money to be coined in his own name, with the device of the vacant see, which is that of two keys in the form of a cross, under the flag of the church; with this motto, *Sede vacante*.

Policy exerts all her arts, and sets every spring in motion, at the election of a pope; nor do the electors always wait for the death of the present chief or head of the Church, to begin those cabals and intrigues which are proper for advancing him whom they esteem a fit person to succeed to the pontifical throne; and although the college invariably and unanimously invoke the assistance and aid of the Holy Ghost, to direct them in the choice of a Vicar of JESUS CHRIST, yet their eminences use all the precautions imaginable to prevent him from being in any way concerned in the election. The cardinals are obliged to enter the conclave ten days after the death of the pope; but before that time they hear the Mass of the Holy Ghost in the Gregorian Chapel, and some bishop makes a Latin harangue, exhorting them to make choice of a person who is worthy to fill the chair of the prince of the apostles. After this, their eminences march in procession to the conclave, two by two, according to their rank, attended by the Swiss Guards and a vast crowd of people, the chorus all the while singing the "*Veni Creator*." Being arrived at the con-

have, they take possession of their cells by lot, after which they all go to the Paulin Chapel, where the bulls for the election of the pope are read, and the dean of the sacred college exhorts the assembly to act in conformity to them. When this is over, the cardinals are allowed to go home to dine, but must return to the conclave before three at night; at which time the master of the ceremonies acquaints them that they ought not to shut themselves up, unless they are determined to continue there as long as the conclave shall last, consistently with the order and direction of the bulls, in which it is regulated that those who go out shall not be permitted to return. The governor and marshal of the conclave now post their soldiers in such order and in such places as they judge most requisite for the safety of the election. The ambassadors of princes, and all those who have any interest in the election of a future pope, are allowed to continue in the conclave for the first twenty-four hours. When the clock strikes three the master of the ceremonies rings a bell, after which all, except the electors, retire: the doors are then shut, the conclave is walled up, and guards are posted at all the avenues. The cardinal-dean, and cardinal-camerlengo, now visit the conclave, to see if it be well shut, and an act thereof is drawn up by an apostolical notary.

None but the cardinals, and two conclavists for each, (one an ecclesiastic, and the other a soldier,) remain in the conclave. Those cardinals who are princes, or who are old, or infirm, are sometimes allowed three. The other persons appointed for the service of the conclave are the sacristan, the under-sacristan, a secretary, an under-secretary, a confessor, who is always a Jesuit, two physicians, a surgeon, two barbers, an apothecary, and their apprentices, five masters of the ceremonies, a bricklayer, a carpenter, and sixteen porters or valets, for hard labour.

Though the office of a conclavist be incommodious and uneasy, yet on account of its privileges it is very much sought after; for a conclavist is sometimes the secret agent of the ministers of crowned heads. Every officer, however, of the conclave, takes an oath not to reveal any of its secrets. He must be shut up in a little corner of his master's cell, and do every menial office for him. He must fetch his victuals and drink, which the cardinal's officers give him from without twice every day, through an inlet that communicates to his cell; he waits on his master at table; keeps every thing very clean; and when he has done, serves himself.

According to the order of Innocent III., there are three several methods of electing a pope, viz. by *scrutiny*, *compro-*

mise, and inspiration. The election by *scrutiny*, which is the only way that has been used for a long while, contains all the formality that appears most essential for making the election canonical. Still it is no more than a mere ceremony, as the several factions of the cardinals have united beforehand in the choice of the person. This harmony is brought about by the most refined and delicate strokes of policy, and for the most part comes on after their eminences have found out, by several scrutinies, the disposition of the sacred college. Then, if the votes for any of the candidates come near the number required, it is a very common practice for the other factions to fall off and coalesce with the others, and thereby contribute to the pope's election, fearing to draw on them his hatred by a fruitless and unseasonable opposition.

Different
modes of elect-
ing a pope.

The *scrutiny* consists in collecting and examining votes, given in by printed billets, which the cardinals put into a chalice that stands on the altar of the chapel, at which they have met to choose the pope. These billets are prepared by the masters of the ceremonies, who put them into two golden basins, placed at each end of a long table, which stands on the side of the high altar. Each of these billets is a span or palm long, and half a span broad, and are divided into eight equal parts, by parallel lines taking up the whole length of each billet, as well on the inside as the out; that is, the reverse of the billet when rolled up. On the first space, rolled inward, these two words, "*Ego Cardinalis*," stand at a small distance from each other to make room for the proper name. The second is a blank, in which the cardinal writes his surname and titles. The third has two O's at each end, for the cardinal's seal, which is generally made on purpose; for he never uses his coat of arms on this occasion. The fourth is filled up with "*Eligo*," &c. The fifth is for the surname and titles of the cardinal proposed to be pope. The sixth is as the third. The seventh continues a blank, and the eighth is filled up with a motto, which the cardinal, whose name the billet bears, makes choice of out of the sacred scriptures. The reverse of each billet is divided likewise into eight equal parts, and almost all of them are filled up with flourishes, that the writing on the other side may not appear through. Before the scrutiny begins, little bills, having the names of all the cardinals on them, are put into a bag, with an intent to draw thence three scrutineers, three overseers of the sick, and three revisors.

Election by
scrutiny.

The cardinals use all the art imaginable to disguise their hands. They write what we have just mentioned on the scrutiny billets; or, if they have not skill enough to conceal their hands, they make use of an unknown hand, that it may not be known for whom they vote. These billets are wrapped up with all possible dexterity and address, that it may be a secret to whom they belong; after which they close them in their hands and take their places; and then the scrutiny begins in the following manner. Each cardinal takes the billet, thus written and folded up, between the thumb and the forefinger of his right hand, and holding it up to the view of the other members of the sacred college, carries it to the high altar, kneeling down upon the first step, where he repeats an ejaculatory prayer. He then goes up to the altar, and takes the oath aloud; after which he puts his billet upon the patten which covers the chalice, and from thence slides it into the chalice; he then returns to his place. This office is performed by the overseers of the sick for those cardinals who are indisposed. They present the scrutiny billets to such cardinals, together with a box in the form of an urn, with a very small hole in it, at which the sick man puts in his billet. The billet cannot be got out again but by opening the box, which is carried to the chapel, opened before all the cardinals present, and then the billet is put into the chalice in the manner already described.

Before the scrutiny begins, the sacristan, who is always an Augustine friar, says the mass of the Holy Ghost. The scrutineers then stand near the great altar, to mix and open the billets in the chalice, and to see that the scrutiny proceeds in due form. The last scrutineer takes these billets one after another, and first showing them to the cardinals, puts them into another chalice. If there be a greater or less number of billets than there are cardinals, the scrutineer burns all he finds in the two chalices, and each cardinal makes a new one, till the scrutiny comes right. When the billets are equal to the number of cardinals, the scrutiny is published in the following manner. The heads of the three orders of cardinals go up to the high altar, take the chalice in which the billets are put, carry it to the table before-mentioned, and then retire, and the three scrutineers come and seat themselves at the table, with their faces towards the cardinals. The first scrutineer turns the chalice upside down upon the table, opens each billet in the place where the vote is written, and looks upon the name of the cardinal who is therein voted for; and still, as he opens them, he puts them into the hands of the second



Benediction of Bells. p. 292.



Consecration of an image. p. 293.



scrutineer, who looks likewise on the name, and gives it to the third, who reads the name aloud. Meanwhile, the cardinals mark each name upon a sheet of paper, on which all their names are printed. Those who are named set down also the votes given them, to see if they have a sufficient number to be elected. This number must be at least *two thirds*.

The last scrutineer files all these billets, that none of them may be lost, and the file is kept in view till he has put it into a chalice set apart for that purpose. When the scrutiny is over, the billets are again told over, and three revisors examine them. They are burned when the election has been approved as *canonical*. If the votes do not rise to a sufficient number, billets are taken in order to choose the pope by way of *accessus*; and there is scarcely ever a scrutiny without this *accessus*. The *accessus* is intended to correct the scrutiny. In this, they give their votes by other billets, on which is written, "*Accedo Domino*," &c. when they join their vote to another's; or, "*Accedo Nemini*," when they adhere to their first vote. The *accessus* is performed in the same manner as the scrutiny, only they do not take the oath again. The scrutineers examine the billets of the *accessus*, as they did those of the scrutiny, and the cardinals, after the same manner, set down the votes which are gained thereby to any of the candidates.

After the revisors have very accurately examined the votes of the *accessus*, and find the election to be perfectly canonical, they send for three apostolical notaries into the chapel where the election was made, who, upon inspecting the billets and other pieces which the scrutineers and revisors lay before them, draw up a memorandum of the election. All the cardinals who have assisted at the conclave, sign and seal this record; after which, the scrutineers burn all the billets, both of the scrutiny and the *accessus*, in presence of all the cardinals.

The pope is elected by *compromise*, when the cardinals, disagreeing in their choice, engage by mutual compromise to refer the election to some particular cardinals of probity, and to acknowledge him whom they shall nominate as duly elected, by virtue of the power given to them for that purpose. The election by way of *inspiration* is in some measure riotous and tumultuary. A select number of cardinals of different factions, who have determined to put every thing to the last push, begin to cry out, "such a one is pope," as it were by

Election by
Compromise
&c.

inspiration. *Adoration* is the same as *inspiration*, which is, when two thirds of the conclave, being agreed in the person, go in a body and adore and acknowledge the pope they approve of, as head of the church. The elections by way of *compromise*, *inspiration*, and *adoration*, but seldom happen. The *scrutiny* and *accessus* are the methods generally observed.

As soon as the pope is elected, it is customary for his domestics and the populace to plunder his cell in the conclave, and the palace in which he resided.

As soon as the pope is elected, the cardinals who are the heads of their respective orders, ask the consent of his holiness, and the name which he is determined to assume, in this alteration of his state. This alteration of his name is perhaps the most singular act which takes place in the election of the supreme pontiff.

Adoration
paid to the
Pope elect.

Sergius the Fourth, who was before called "*Os Porci*," that is, *Swine's face*, was the first pope who thought proper to change his name on his exaltation to the pontificate; and this custom has been invariably followed by his successors. The elected pontiff's new appellation being made known, the fisherman's ring is immediately given him. After which, the masters of the ceremonies draw up a formal instrument of his declaration, and deliver in a duplicate of it to the college. The two first cardinal-deacons then conduct the new pope behind the altar, where, with the assistance of the masters of the ceremonies and the sacristan, (who is always an Augustine monk,) they take off his cardinal's habit to put on the pontifical, which is a white taffeta cassock; a linen rochet; a camail, and a cap, both of red satin; with shoes made of red cloth embroidered with gold, and a golden cross on the upper part. Thus pompously dressed, the pope is carried on his chair before the altar of the chapel appointed for the election, and there the cardinal-dean, first, and after him, the remainder of the cardinals, adore his holiness upon their knees, kissing his foot, and his right hand; after which the holy father takes them up, and gives them the salute of peace on the right cheek. After this, the first cardinal-deacon, preceded by the master of the ceremonies, who carries the cross, and by a choir of musicians who sing the anthem, *Ecce sacerdos magnus, &c.*—*Behold the high priest so acceptable to God, and so just*—goes to the great lodge of St. Peter, where the master mason takes care to have the door opened, that the cardinal may pass into the balcony, to acquaint the people with the pope's election, crying with an audible voice, *Annuntio vobis gaudium*

magnum, habemus papam, &c.—*I bring you glad tidings, we have a pope, &c.* Then one of the large culverins of St. Peter's is discharged, to give the governor of the castle of St. Angelo notice to discharge all his artillery: all the bells of the city begin to ring at the same time, and the air resounds with the cheerful sound of drums, trumpets, and kettle drums.

During the roar of the artillery, the sound of the bells, and the melody both of vocal and instrumental music, the Romans incessantly break out into solemn vows and loud acclamations for the new pope. The same day, about two hours before night, the pope, having his cope and his mitre on, is carried and set upon the altar of Sixtus's chapel, where the cardinals, in their purple copes, come, and a second time adore the new pontiff, who is seated upon the relics of the altar stone. This adoration is celebrated in the same manner as the former, the musicians all the time singing anthems suitable to the solemn occasion.

In the meantime, the inclosures of the conclave are broken, or taken down, and the cardinals, preceded by music, descend into the middle of St. Peter's church. The pope follows them, carried in his pontifical chair under a red canopy embellished with gold fringe. His bearers now seat him on the great altar of St. Peter, where the cardinals pay their adoration to him a third time, and the foreign ambassadors after them, before a prodigious number of spectators, with whom this spacious church is generally crowded to the utmost extent of the very porch. *Te Deum* is then sung, and the cardinal-dean, who is on the epistle side, reads the verses and prayers, appointed for that purpose in the Roman ceremonial. After this, his holiness is set down on the highest step of the altar. A cardinal-dean takes off his mitre, and then he solemnly blesses the people. His *pontificalia* are then taken off, and twelve chairmen, in long scarlet cloaks hanging down to the ground, place him in his chair, and convey him on their shoulders into his apartment.

Stephen II. is said to be the first pope who was carried on men's shoulders after his election: but, as we know that the illustrious men of Rome were carried on litters by their slaves, we may conclude that this custom is merely a remnant of the habits of the ancient Romans.

In regard to the kissing of the feet of his holiness, it is doubtless a very ancient custom. Baronius gives an instance of it in the year 204, and it appears that after that time, the Emperor Justin I., Pepin, king of France, Frederic Barbarossa, and others, all kissed the pope's feet. The time, however,

when this custom became constantly practised is not exactly known; although we may justly suspect, that it was only the same mark of respect which was formerly paid to the ancient Roman emperors, who were, at the same time, the supreme pontiffs of the religion of the Romans, and the sovereigns of the state. Though this ceremony be considered, in the opinion of the vulgar, as an instance of the veneration and esteem which Christians entertain for the pope, it will appear upon the whole, that it is to JESUS CHRIST alone. For we are to observe, that the pope's slipper has a cross upon it, which is the emblem of CHRIST crucified. The successors of St. Peter have invariably ordered that their sandals should have this cross on the upper-leathers: so that it is not the feet of his holiness, but the cross of JESUS CHRIST crucified, that is kissed. Faithful Catholics affirm that the pontiff's feet ought to be kissed after the same manner, and with the same respect, as the cross and other holy images are kissed.

The pope being the head of the Catholic or universal Church, wears the keys as a sign of the power with which he is invested, to open the gates of heaven to all true believers; and the triple crown to instruct and inform the Christian world, that he is both high-priest, emperor, and king.

The preparations for his coronation are in no degree inferior to those of the most august princes of the universe. If he be a deacon only, the cardinal-dean, after his election, constitutes him both priest and bishop in Sextus's chapel, to which, on the day of his coronation, he repairs in his cardinal's habit; that is, the white cassock, the rochet, the short mantle, or cope of red satin, and the red capuch, supported by two prelates, who are the gentlemen of his bed-chamber and his cup-bearer, who are dressed in a red cope, with a capuch lined with red taffeta. The pages of the privy chamber, and the pages of honour, also the chaplain's to the pope, who walk with his holiness, are preceded by those who are called the pages *extra muros*, (that is, without the walls,) and the squires of the deceased pope. The ambassadors, the general of the church, the princes of the throne, the governor of Rome, the captains of the light horse, of the Swiss, and the ancepsados, all make their appearance, and assist at this ceremony, as well as the cardinals, who are clothed in red, that is, in their cassocks, rochets, their copes of red satin, which the Romans call *mozette*, and their red calottes on their heads. The procession having arrived at Sextus's chapel, the cardinals, at the entrance, put on their red copes. Two cardinal-

deacons now give the pope his pontificalia; the ceremony of which is as follows:—the first master of the ceremonies girds on the *falda* of taffeta under the rochet, and puts upon his head the red satin *berretta*. His holiness then goes into the chapel; where the cardinals rise up, and at his first appearance make him a most profound bow, the holy father receiving the submission of his spiritual children like an indulgent parent. The gentlemen who attend on their eminences, are at this time on their knees, and his holiness stands with his back against the altar. Afterwards, one of the two cardinal-deacons takes off his *berretta*, and his companion puts on another of white taffeta: they likewise take off his red *mozette*, and dress him in the amict, the albe, the girdle, the stole, and the red chasuble, embroidered all over with gold. The first cardinal-deacon now puts the mitre upon his head, whilst the master of the ceremonies sings the *extra* with an audible voice. After this, one of the apostolic sub-deacons takes up the cross that is carried before the pope; and the cardinals pull off their *berrettas* in honour of the sacred wood.

The cross is carried in the following order: the pope's gentlemen go before it two by two, followed by the courtiers of the new successor of St. Peter, dressed in their ceremonial habits. The pages *extra muros* march next, and after them the consistorial advocates, the gentlemen of the privy chamber, the referendary prelates, the bishops, archbishops, and patriarchs, and then the pope's chaplains, who carry the triple crown and the mitre. The cross comes after these chaplains, and is followed by the cardinal-deacons two and two a-breast and they are followed by the cardinals, priests, and bishops, in the same order. Their eminences are followed by the Roman conservators, the caporions, &c. The holy father is carried to church on a chair in the midst of this solemn procession, surrounded by his guards, and an infinite number of people. The knights of St. Peter and St. Paul support the canopy under which his holiness is carried; and in this order, the procession proceeds to St. Peter's church.

Under the portico of St. Peter, near the holy gate, a throne is erected for the pope, where he sits under a canopy; around which benches are railed in for the cardinals. The canons, and all those who enjoy any benefice in St. Peter's, with their cardinal high-priest at the head of them, now come and kiss the feet of the holy father. After which, he is carried to the foot of the high altar, attended by a number of people making loud acclamations: he then kneels down and prays bareheaded before the holy sacrament; and is immediately

carried from thence to the Gregorian chapel. There he seats himself on a throne, surrounded by the foreign ambassadors, the princes of the throne, and other persons of rank and distinction. The cardinals in their red copes, the prelates, &c. then pay their homage to him; the former kissing his hand, and the others his knee. His holiness then gives the people his benediction; and they return him their thanks by extraordinary acclamations, and other testimonies of general joy.

This ceremony being concluded, the cardinals, bishops, and other prelates, put on their white robes, whilst the canons of St. Peter sing an anthem in the choir. The pope washes his hands four times. The first time, the water is presented him by the first Roman conservator; the second in time of mass, by the general of the Church; the third by the ambassador of the most Christian king; and the last, by the ambassador of his Imperial Majesty. They are, if present at the solemnity, indispensably obliged to the performance of this religious duty, as a proof of their submission to the holy See.

The holy father in the next place is undressed, in order to put on other robes, the colour of which is a type or symbol of his purity and innocence. The *acolytes* present these new vestments to the cardinal-deacon, who clothes his holiness in a white garment; in order that, according to the language of scripture, he may be fitted to *preside in the temple of the Lord*. The dress of his holiness now consists of the cassock, amict, albe, girdle, dalmatica, stole, gloves, and mitre, embroidered with gold, and set with jewels. The procession is then resumed, during which, the first master of the ceremonies carries a lighted wax taper in one hand, and a basin in the other, in which *the pomps and vanities* of this world are exhibited to the holy father, under the representation of castles and palaces *made of flax*, to which the master of the ceremonies sets fire three successive times, saying to his holiness each time, *Pater Sancte, sic transit gloria mundi! Behold, holy father, how the glory of this world passes away!*—This ceremony seems to owe its birth to that which was practised at the coronation of the Greek emperors; for, in the midst of all the pomp and splendour of their coronation, they were on one hand presented with a vase filled with ashes and dead men's bones, and on the other with flax, which was set on fire; by this double emblem reminding them of their mortality, and of the fate of their worldly honours.

The whole procession having arrived at the foot of the altar, on which stand seven large silver gilt candlesticks with large lighted wax-tapers in them, similar to those which



The adoration of the Pope before the grand altar of St. Peter. p. 42



The Communion. p. 253.



are carried by the seven acolytes before the cross, the pope makes a short prayer on a desk, and then rising, begins the *Introibo* of the mass, having the cardinal-dean on his right hand, as assistant-bishop in his cope; and the cardinal-deacon of the gospel on his left, and behind him two cardinal-deacons assistants.

After his holiness has made the solemn confession, the dean of the rota, who holds his mitre, gives it to the two cardinal-deacons assistants, to set it upon his head. His holiness, in the next place, sits down on his throne, before which each of the three first cardinal priests reads a prayer for his coronation. After which, the holy father descends from the throne, his mitre is taken off, and the first cardinal-deacon, assisted by the second, dresses him in the pallium, saying to him, *Receive the pallium which represents to you the duties and perfections of the pontifical function: may you discharge it to the glory of God, and of his most Holy Mother the blessed Virgin Mary; of the blessed apostles St. Peter and St. Paul; and of the holy Roman Church.*

The cardinal-deacon of the gospel having put three diamond buttons on the three crosses of the pallium, the holy father ascends the altar, with the pallium on his shoulders, but without his mitre, kisses the book of the holy evangelist, puts incense into the thurible, and thurifies or perfumes the altar. After this, the mitre is again set on his holiness's head, and the first cardinal-deacon thurifies him three times successively. The ceremony closes with a salute, which that cardinal gives him on his left cheek and his stomach, which ceremony is also performed by the other two cardinals.

This ceremony being over, the pope returns to his throne, whither all the cardinals repair, and after taking off their mitres, pay him their adorations. All the clergy come likewise, and adore him, each according to his quality, and all in their ceremonial habits. The patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops, kiss his foot and his knee; the abbots and penitentiaries of St. Peter, his knee only.

Afterwards, the pope rises, lays down his mitre, ascends the altar, sings or reads the *Introite* and the *Kyrie*, &c. sings the *Gloria in Excelsis* with an audible voice, and, as soon as the prayer of mass is said, resumes his place. Then the first cardinal-deacon descends into the confessional of St. Peter, which is a place under the altar, where the relics of the martyrs lie, attended by the apostolical sub-deacons, the auditors of the rota, the consistorial advocates, &c. who walk in two ranks, with their white copes, and their purple amices over

them. The cardinal-deacon sings there with a low voice, the *Exaudi Christe!* (*Hear, O CHRIST!*) to which the clergy who follow him answer, *Domino nostro a Deo decreto summo Pontifici et Papæ, &c.* (*Our lord, the Pope, sovereign Pontiff, instituted and ordained by God, &c.*) The *Exaudi, &c.* are three times repeated as well as the *Salvator, Mundi*, which is afterwards added by the same cardinal, and to which the clergy answer, *Tu illum adjuva*,—that is, *O Saviour of the world assist him!* Then follow the litanies of the saints. The Latin epistle follows those litanies, and the Greek after the Latin; the one is sung by the Greek sub-deacon, and the other by the Latin. The musicians in the choir now sing the gradual; ■ cardinal-deacon sings the gospel in Latin, another the same in Greek, and the mass closes with some particular ceremonies. As soon as mass is over, the holy father goes into his chair again, without pulling off those robes which he had worn during the celebration of it. Then the cardinal-arch-priest of St. Peter, attended by two canons, presents the pope with a white damask purse, in which are twenty-five Julios, old Roman money. The chapter and canons of St. Peter make him this present as a testimony that he has *sung mass well*. This money the holy father gives to the cardinal-deacons, who sang the two gospels, and they bestow it on their train-bearers.

To conclude, the pope is carried to the benediction-pew, accompanied by his cardinals and prelates. The canopy under which he is carried, is supported by the Roman conservators and the caparions; two of the grooms, in red liveries, carrying fans of peacocks' feathers on each side of the chair. The cardinals and prelates all stand, whilst the two first cardinal-deacons, in quality of assistants, help his holiness to ascend the throne, which is always set up by the sacred college, on the preceding day, in the middle of the pew. As soon as the pope is seated, the choir sing the anthem, *Corona aurea super caput, &c.*—that is, *A crown of gold shall be on his head, &c.* with the *responses*; after which the dean reads the coronation prayer. The second cardinal-deacon now takes off the mitre of his holiness, and the first puts the triple crown on his head, saying, *Receive this tiara embellished with three crowns, and never forget, when you have it on, that you are the father of princes and kings, the supreme judge of the universe, and on the earth, Vicar of JESUS CHRIST our Lord and Saviour.*

Immediately after being crowned, the pope blesses the people three times, and two cardinals publish a plenary indulgence both in Latin and Italian. After this, his holiness with-

draws to his apartment in the Vatican, and on his way through Sixtus's chapel, the cardinal-deacons take off his pontificalia. The first cardinal-priest, in the name of the whole sacred college, now makes him the compliment *ad multos annos*, that is, wishes he may enjoy his pontificate for many years.

The pope holds consistories when he receives princes, or their ambassadors; when he canonizes any saint, or promotes cardinals; or treats of any important affair, either civil or ecclesiastical. When a consistory is to be held, the pope's throne is erected in the great hall of the apostolic palace. This throne is almost square, and about twelve palms, or six feet, wide, to which he ascends by three steps. His holiness sits down on a seat adorned with cloth of gold, under a canopy of the same; both equal to each other in point of magnificence: the foot of the throne is covered with red cloth. The cardinal-bishops and priests sit on his right hand, below the throne; the deacons on his left; but in such a position as to have their faces towards the holy father. Between the seats of the cardinal-bishops and priests, and those of the deacons, there is a considerable space left for the people to pass and repass.

Ceremonies
observed when
a pope holds
a consistory.

When his holiness goes to hold a public consistory, he walks with the mitre on his head, and is dressed in his amict, albe, stole, and red chasuble, the cross and cardinals preceding him. The procession having arrived at the consistory chamber, the holy father takes his place, and then the cardinals, having first made him a profound obeisance, repair to their respective seats. The archbishops, bishops, prothonotaries, and other prelates, sit on the steps of the throne; the sub-deacons, auditors, clerks of the chamber, and acolytes, with their woollen copes, on the lowest step; and the ecclesiastical officers of the pope's court on the ground, between the cardinal seats. The pages of the chamber, and the secretaries, sit also on the ground, between the prelates and ecclesiastical officers. The nephews of the reigning pope, in case he has any, and some other Roman princes, sit on each side of the throne, and are for that reason called *Princes of the Throne*. Ambassadors, and other foreign ministers, are seated on the right-hand of the throne, between the steps and the wall, which is the place for the highest nobility: the other gentlemen are on the left, among the pope's domestic officers: the consistorial advocates sit behind the cardinal-deacons, and the proctors of princes, with the fiscal proctor, who takes place of the other proctors, behind the cardinal-bishops. The entrance of the passage leading to the throne is filled up by

the pope's guard. The master of the *Sacro Hospitio* stands between the guard, and the bottom of the rank of cardinal-priests. The clerks of the ceremonies are at the head of the chief of the deacons, for the greater convenience of executing the pope's orders. When the pope holds a consistory for judicial causes, each advocate, who has any motion to make, stands behind the cardinal-priests, opposite to the pope; and having opened his cause, he throws his petition to the ecclesiastical officers, who take and present it to the vice-chancellor. Lastly, when the consistory is concluded, the two eldest cardinal-deacons come forward to support the pope, and then the whole assembly return in the same order as they came.

Private consistories have not so many ceremonies, and are held in some private apartment, at a distance from the sacred palace. There are no steps to the pontifical seat,

Private consistories.

only a kind of open bench, without an alcove, and another of a smaller size, which serves as a footstool to ascend to the largest one. Each of the cardinal-bishops and priests is seated according to his rank; the eldest cardinal sits next the pope, on his right hand, and the eldest cardinal-deacon next him on his left. There are benches before their seats, on which their eminences set their feet; and the assembly is so ranged or disposed, that the last cardinal-deacon is next the last cardinal-priest, who has a bell in his hand, to call the attendants in waiting to receive their orders. The pope's seat is covered with red cloth; but those of the cardinals are only painted in that colour, and have the pope's arms upon them. The space which lies between his holiness and their eminences, is covered with a large carpet. When this ecclesiastical senate has any state affairs, or any matters relating to the Church, under deliberation, every body but the cardinals goes out, and when they come to give their votes, they are obliged to do it standing and bareheaded.

The service of the Catholic Church consists of prayers and holy lessons, which the Church has appointed to be read

Canonical every day by the clergy, at particular hours. hours for di- This service is called the *canonical hours*, be- vine service. cause it was ordained by the canons of the Church, which not only prescribed the hours in which it is to be said, but likewise every particular circumstance which bears any relation to it. These circumstances, however, are not absolutely the same in all churches. This office, or order of divine service, is likewise called the *breviary*, by a modern term, which some are of opinion was not introduced till after its abridgment; for it was much longer formerly than at present.

There are instances of *canonical hours* to be met with in the Hebrew Scriptures. The *matins* in *Psalms* cxviii., or according to the *Hebrew*, cxix.; *prime*, in *Psalms* xcii.; *tierce*, in *Acts*, chap. ii.; *sext*, in chap. x. of the same book; *none*, in chap. iii.; and *verses*, in our Lord's last supper. The Heathens had likewise their *matins*; and the Egyptians saluted their gods every morning: they had their *primes*, *seconds*, and *tierces*, which the Catholics call *prime*, *tierce*, *sext*, &c.

The clergy being ordained and established for the edification of Christians, their first obligation is constantly to repeat their breviary, that is, to pray to God for the Church, to sing the divine office with devotion, to maintain a taste for piety in Christian souls, and to administer ghostly comfort and consolation to the respective flocks intrusted to their care.

The divine service, or office, is to be said in a standing posture, pursuant to the ancient custom of the Church, and upon the knees on days of penance only. It is said by those who treat on Church ceremonies, that genuflection is a mark of sorrow and contrition; but standing is not only a type of joy, and of raising the mind with cheerfulness to God, but of the Resurrection too, which is the object of the Christian faith.

The divine service consists of seven hours, if *matins* and *lauds* be reckoned as one service, but eight, in case they be divided. In the primitive ages of the Church, it was composed but of six parts, which were *tierce*, *sext*, and *none*, for the day; and for night, the evening, midnight, and morning prayers. At present they are divided into seven or eight: *matins* for night; *lauds* for the morning; *prime*, *tierce*, *sext*, *none*, for the day; *verses* for the evening; and *complin* for the beginning of the night. Certain writers on ceremonies, likewise insist that *matins* represent the occurrences of the passion-night; that *lauds* are appointed to commemorate CHRIST's resurrection; *prime*, to contemplate the ignominious treatment which he met with at the house of Caiaphas, and to humble ourselves at the sight of those indignities and affronts: that *tierce* is principally designed to return God thanks for the sanctification of his Church by the Holy Ghost; *sext*, to honour the crucifixion of our Lord; and *none*, to bring to our remembrance the mystery of his death, which happened at that hour; that *verses* were ordained to commemorate his coming, which, according to a hymn of the Church, was *towards the Night of the World*; and the hour of *complin*, to implore the protection of the Almighty during the night, in the same manner as had been done at *prime* for the day. The

proper hour for saying matins is the night; but lauds, which are now, as it were, incorporated into matins, were formerly said at break of day. Both these offices being called, without distinction matins, are now said towards the close of the night. The hour of saying prime, is directly after sun-rise, for which reason it is called prime, because the ancients began their day at that time, and divided it into twelve hours, which were unequal, as the days were longer or shorter; and by the same rule tierce is fixed at the third hour of the day, and answers to nine o'clock at the Equinoxes; sexte at the sixth, which is always noon; none, at the ninth hour, or about three o'clock in the afternoon; vespers, towards the evening; and complin, after sun-set. Due care is generally taken that these services are all carefully performed at, or very near, the appointed times here specified.

During Lent, however, vespers are said before dinner, on account of those who cannot keep fast according to the prescription of the Church, till the usual hour of vespers. In winter, that is, from All-Saints to Easter, vespers are sung at two o'clock, and the rest of the year at three. After vespers, the curates or vicars ought to catechize youths, unless it has been already done at mass, after the *prone*, or sermon. The evening prayer follows.

Not only those ecclesiastics who are in holy orders, but every nun and friar likewise, who has entered into solemn vows, and all who hold benefices, are under an obligation to perform this service; insomuch, that whoever neglects this duty is reckoned to be guilty of a mortal sin, and is considered liable to restore the revenues of his benefice.

The Catholics look upon the sacrifice of the mass as the most acceptable of all adorations, and the most effectual of all prayers. The Church not only prays herself at this sacrifice, which the priest offers up to God in the most solemn and majestic manner; but Jesus Christ also, by the sacrifice of his own body, is said to offer up to his Father the most perfect adoration that can possibly be paid to him, since it is offered by a God. In short, it is Jesus Christ, who alone, and always, acts in this sacrifice. The priest is but his minister, his instrument, his terrestrial organ; it is Christ who leads and directs him, and makes the action of the priest effectual, who offers him as propitiation for the sins of men; however corrupt, therefore, the priest may be in his morals, it is held that the sacrifice is equally salutary to the church, a tenet which redounds considerably to the immaculate character of the holy Roman Catholic Church.

Ceremonies
of the mass.



Priest before the altar.



Priest commences the Mass. p.727.



The Confiteor.



Priest kisses the altar. p. 277.



Priest at the Epistle.



The Introite. p. 277.



Kyrie Eleyson.



Dominus vobiscum. p. 278.

The holy-water is made on Sundays, before high mass, after which follows a procession. The faithful (for by this term the Catholics generally distinguish themselves) ought to be present at mass with a conscience avoid of offence; and in order to show them the necessity of such internal purity, they are sprinkled with a water sanctified for that purpose by a solemn benediction. The procession is a preparation of the hearts of the congregation, for the holy sacrifice of the mass; and the priest and clergy make this preparation by their spiritual hymns and the elevation of the cross, which is carried before the clergy, whilst they move in a solemn manner round the church, or the places adjacent to it.

The mass consists of two principal parts, viz. the *first* from the beginning to the offering, which was formerly called the *Mass of the Catechumens*; and the *second*, from the offering to the conclusion, called the *Mass of the Faithful*. Every person, without any distinction, was required to be present at it, till the offering; because, in this first part, the lessons from scripture, and the preaching of the Gospel, were included, from which none were to be excluded. But after the sermon, none were permitted to have a share in the sacrifice, but those of the faithful who were duly qualified to partake of it; the catechumens were ordered to depart, and the penitents were not only shut out and kept from the communion, but even from the sight of the mysteries; for which reason the deacon cried out, *Holy things are for such as are holy; let the profane depart hence!*

The various actions of the priest at mass may be included under thirty-five distinct heads; and devotion has discovered in all his actions a complete allegory of the passion of JESUS CHRIST. These several actions are briefly as follows:—1. The priest goes to the altar, in allusion to our Lord's retreat with his apostles to the Garden of Olives. 2. Before he begins mass, he says a preparatory prayer. The priest is then to look on himself as one abandoned of God, and driven out of Paradise for the sin of Adam. 3. The priest makes confession for himself, and for the people, in which it is required that he be free from mortal and from venial sin. 4. The priest kisses the altar, as a token of our reconciliation with God, and our Lord's being betrayed by a kiss. 5. The priest goes to the epistle side of the altar, and thurifies or perfumes it. Jesus Christ is now supposed to be taken and bound. 6. The *Introite*, said or sung, i. e. a psalm or hymn, applicable to the circumstance of our Lord's being carried before Caiaphas the

Actions of
the priest at
mass.

high-priest. 7. The priest says the *Kyrie Eleison*, which signifies, Lord have mercy upon us, three times, in allusion to Peter's denying our Lord thrice. 8. The priest, turning towards the altar, says, *Dominus vobiscum*, i. e. The Lord be with you; the people return this salutation, *cum Spiritu tuo*, and with thy Spirit, Jesus Christ looking at Peter. 9. The priest reads the epistle relating to Jesus being accused before Pilate. 10. The priest bowing before the altar, says *Munda cor*, i. e. cleanse our hearts. The gradual is sung. This psalm is varied according as it is the time of Lent or not. The devotion is now directed to our Saviour's being accused before Herod, and making no reply. 11. The priest reads the gospel wherein Jesus Christ is sent from Herod to Pilate. The gospel is carried from the right side of the altar to the left, to denote the tender of the gospel to the Gentiles, after refusal by the Jews. 12. The priest uncovers the chalice, hereby to represent our Lord was stripped in order to be scourged. 13. The oblation to the host, the creed is sung by the congregation. The priest then kisses the altar, then the priest offers up the host, which is to represent or import the scourging of Jesus Christ, which was introductory to his other sufferings. 14. The priest elevates the chalice, then covers it. Here Jesus being crowned with thorns is supposed to be figured to the mind, showing that he was going to be elevated a victim; and it is well known the victims of the Pagans were crowned before they were sacrificed to their idols. 15. The priest washes his fingers, as Pilate washed his hands, and declares Jesus innocent, blesses the bread and the wine, blesses the frankincense, and perfumes the bread and wine, praying that the smell of this sacrifice may be more acceptable to him than the smoke of victims. 16. The priest turning to the people, says, *Coremus Fratres*, i. e. let us pray. He then bows himself to the altar, addresses himself to the Trinity, and prays in a very low voice. This is one of the secretums of the mass, and the imagination of the devout Christian is to find out the conformity between this and Christ being clothed with a purple robe: but we shall be cautious of adding more on this head, that we may not lose ourselves in the boundless ocean of allusions. 17. The priest says the preface at the close of the *Secretum*. This part of the mass is in affinity to Jesus Christ being crucified. The priest uses a prayer to God the Father, which is followed by the *Sanctus*, holy, holy, holy is the Lord, &c. which the people sing. 18. The priest joining his hands prays for the faithful that are living. This is said to be in allusion to Jesus Christ bearing

the cross to die upon, that we might live. 19. The priest covers with a cloth the host and chalice, St. Veronica offering her handkerchief to Jesus Christ. 20. The priest makes the sign of the cross upon the host and chalice, to signify that Jesus Christ is nailed to the cross. 21. The priest adores the host before elevated, and then he raises it up, in the best manner to represent our Saviour lifted up upon the cross. He repeats the Lord's prayer, with his arms extended, that his body might represent the figure of a cross, which is the ensign of christianity. 22. The priest likewise consecrates the chalice, and elevates it, to represent the blood of Jesus Christ shed upon the cross. 23. The priest says the *Memento* for the faithful that are in purgatory. This prayer is in allusion to that which our Lord made for his enemies; but this allusion would be forced and unnatural, unless the devotees looked upon themselves as his enemies. 24. The priest then raises his voice, smiting his breast, begs God's blessing on himself and congregation, for the sake of such saints as he enumerates, and implores the divine Majesty for a place in paradise, to imitate the thief upon the cross. 25. The priest elevates the host and cup, and says the *per omnia*, then the Lord's prayer. The sign of the cross, which he makes on the host, the chalice, and the altar, is to represent to God that bleeding sacrifice which his Son offered up to him of himself; then the devout Christian becomes the child of God, and all this is an allusion to the Virgin Mary's being bid to look on St. John as her son. 26. After the Lord's prayer the priest says a private one to God, to procure his peace by the mediation of the Virgin Mary and the saints, then puts the sacred host upon the paten, and breaks it, to represent Jesus Christ giving up the ghost. 27. The priest puts a little bit of the host into the chalice. The true Christian is now with an eye of faith to behold Jesus Christ descending into *Limbo*, i. e. hell. 28. Then the priest says, and the people sing, *Agnus Dei*, &c. thrice over, and the priest smites his breast. This action is an allusion to those who, having seen our Lord's sufferings, returned home smiting their breasts. 29. After the *Agnus Dei* is sung, the priest says a private prayer for the peace of the church. He then kisses the altar, and the instrument of peace called the pax, which being received at his hands by the deacon, it is handed about to the people to be kissed, and passed from each other with these words, *peace be with you*; and whilst the pax is kissing, the priest prepares himself for the communion by two other prayers, when he adores the host, and then says, with a low voice, *I will eat of the celestial*

bread; and smiting his breast, says, *I am not worthy that thou shouldest enter into my house*, three times, after eating of the bread. He uncovers the chalice, repeating verse i. of the 115th psalm, according to the Vulgate. When the priest has received the communion, he administers it to the people. The application of these ceremonies is to the death and burial of Jesus Christ, and his descent into hell. 30. After this, the priest putting the wine into the chalice, in order to take what is called the ablution, repeats a short prayer; then he causes wine and water to be poured out for the second ablution, accompanied with another short prayer, and then salutes the congregation. These ablutions allegorically represent the washing and embalming the body of Jesus Christ, &c. 31. The priest sings the post communion or prayer for a good effect of the sacrament then received, expressed by the glorious resurrection of the regenerate Christians, and is to be looked upon as the representation of our Lord's resurrection. 32. The priest, turning to the people, says, *Dominus vobiscum*, salutes the congregation, as the ambassador of Christ, with the message of peace. 33. The priest reads the beginning of St. John's gospel, and particularly of Jesus's appearing to his mother and disciples, and uses some short prayers. 34. The priest dismisses the people with these words, *Ite missa est*, depart, the mass is concluded, to which they answer, God be thanked. This, they say, points to the ascension of Jesus Christ, where he receives the eternal reward of that sacrifice, both as priest and victim. 35. The people receive the benediction of the priest or bishop, if he is present, to represent the blessings promised and poured down upon the apostles by the Holy Ghost.

This benediction must be given after kissing, with eyes erected to heaven, and arms stretched out, and then gently brought back to the stomach, that the hands may join in an affectionate manner for the congregation of the faithful.

The extension of the arms and the joining of the hands are both mysterious, and show the charity with which the priest calls his spiritual brethren to God.

When he pronounces the benediction he must lean in an engaging posture towards the altar.

High or solemn Mass. Masses among the Catholics are exceedingly numerous; but our limits admit of a description of but two—high or solemn mass and the mass for the dead.

When there is to be a solemn mass, if it be a bishop who officiates, he is attended to church by the canons and other officers



The last prayer.

The Dismission. p. 280.



Mass of the Holy Ghost. p. 280.

of the church, who go and wait upon him in state at his palace ; but if it happens to be too far distant from the church, the whole chapter, who wait at the church-gate, advance to meet him as soon as his lordship appears in sight, and when he draws near to the church, the bells are rung to give the people notice of it, and the moment he sets his foot within the church, the organ begins to play. The master of the ceremonies now gives the sprinkler to the head canon, who presents it to the bishop, after he has kissed both that, and his sacred hand. His lordship first sprinkles himself, and then the canons, with it, in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost ; and then proceeds to say a prayer at a desk prepared for that particular purpose, before the altar, on which stands the Holy Sacrament. He performs the same ceremony at the high altar ; and thence he withdraws into the vestry, and there puts on such ornaments as are suitable to the solemnity of the mass, in the following manner.

The sub-deacon goes to a little closet contiguous to the altar, and takes from it the episcopal sandals and stockings, which he elevates and presents to the bishop. Then he kneels down, takes off his lordship's shoes and stockings ; the bishop, meanwhile, is in the midst of seven or eight acolytes, all upon their knees, and dressed in their robes, who, as well as the deacon, spread the prelate's robes, in order that nothing indelicate may be discerned in putting on his stockings. Two acolytes, after they have washed their hands, now take the sacred habiliments, hold them up, and give them to the two deacon-assistants, to put upon the bishop, as soon as he has washed his hands. The deacon salutes the bishop, takes off his upper garment, and puts on his amict, the cross of which he kisses ; then they give him the albe, the girdle, the cross for his breast, the stole, and the pluvial. He kisses the cross that is upon each of them, one after another, and thereby testifies the extraordinary veneration which he has, or ought to have, for the cross of Christ. The deacon-assistants likewise most devoutly kiss those sacred vestments. As soon as the bishop is seated, they put his mitre on, and a priest presents him with the pastoral ring. The deacon then gives him his right glove, and the sub-deacon his left, which each of them kiss, as also the hand they have the honour to serve. Ejaculatory prayers have been adapted to each individual piece of the episcopal robes, and the devotion of this ceremony is supported and confirmed by singing the office of *tierce*.

According to Casalius and others, there is some mystery in each of the bishop's ornaments : the stole represents the yoke

of the gospel; the bishop's shoes are taken off by virtue of what God said to Moses, *Put off thy shoes from off thy feet, &c.*; the dalmatica, which is in the form of a cross, intimates to the deacon, that he must be crucified to the world; the albe represents the purity of the priest's soul; the pastoral ring points out the bishop's spiritual marriage with the church; his gloves signify that he is to be insensible of his good works, or that he must direct them to a spiritual end; the girdle, that he is to be girded with justice and virtue; the sandals, that he ought from thenceforth to walk in the paths of the Lord; the two horns of the mitre represent the Old and New Testament; the shepherd's crook, his correction and paternal authority. The *pluvial*, which, in former times was a dress for travelling and fatigue, from whence it manifestly took its name, signifying a protection against *rain* and storms, shows the miseries of this life, which is ever exposed to temptations and human infirmities.

The bishop being dressed in all his habiliments, his clergy range themselves round about him. Two deacons, who are canons, place themselves on each side of him, both in their dalmaticas; and after them a deacon, and a sub-deacon. The incense-bearer appears with the censer, and a priest with the navet, out of which the bishop takes incense, puts it into the censer, and gives it his benediction. After this he kisses the cross, which is upon the vestry-altar, and goes in procession to the other altar, where he is to celebrate mass. The incense-bearer walks at the head of the procession; two wax-candle bearers, with lighted tapers in their hands, march next, on each side of him who bears the cross: all the clergy follow them. The sub-deacon who is to sing the epistle, carries before his breast, the book of the New Testament, which is shut, and in which is the bishop's maniple. A deacon and a priest, with their pluvials on, march before the bishop, who leans humbly on his two deacon-assistants, with the shepherd's crook in his left hand, and his right somewhat raised, ready to give his benediction to those Christians whom he meets with in his way.

The bishop being now advanced to the altar, salutes his clergy with one single bow of the head. When he is on the lowest step, he delivers his crook to the sub-deacon, and the deacon takes off his mitre. Then the prelate and his officiating clergy make a profound bow to the cross on the altar; after which the clergy all withdraw, except the sub-deacon, who has the charge of the episcopal crook, the incense-bearer, two deacon-assistants, one priest-assistant, who stands at the

bishop's right hand, one deacon at his left, and one more behind him. The bishop says the *confiteor*, and the choir sing the *introite*.

At the end of the confession, the sub-deacon takes the maniple, which was in the book of the New Testament, kisses it, and presents it to the bishop for the same purpose; then kisses his lordship's hand, and puts it on his left arm; in the meantime the canons, dressed in their robes, repeat the confession. After this the bishop goes up to the altar, and continuing his prayer, he leans towards the altar, extending his arms upon the table of it, and kissing it with affection in the middle, whilst he makes mention of the sacred relics which are placed therein. The sub-deacon now presents him with the book of the New Testament, which he kisses. The incense-bearer then comes forward with the censer and navet, which he delivers to the deacon, and the bishop receives them from him, in order to bless the incense. The person who officiates, then takes the censer, perfumes the altar, gives it back to the deacon, takes the mitre from another deacon, goes to the epistle side, and is thrice perfumed there by the deacon who holds the censer.

After this ceremony is over, the bishop kisses the holy cross, takes the crosier in his left hand, and leaning upon his two deacon-assistants, whilst the deacon and sub-deacon continue at the altar, goes to his episcopal throne. There, laying aside his mitre, and making the sign of the cross, from the forehead down to the breast, he reads the *introite* out of a mass-book, which the assistant-priest holds for him, whilst another has a wax-taper in his hand to light his lordship. The two deacon-assistants point with their finger to the place where he is to read; then all sing the *kyrie* together; after which the bishop puts on his mitre and his gremial, which is a sort of sacerdotal apron, and sits down. The two deacon-assistants now seat themselves on each side of him, and the assistant-priest sits down on a stool. They all rise when the choir concludes the *kyrie*; then the bishop, turning towards the altar, gives out the *Gloria in excelsis* with an audible voice, which he continues saying with his ministers.

There is nothing very remarkable relating to the *gradual*, the *hallelujah*, and the *gospel*, unless it be that the last is ushered in by a kind of procession. The master of the ceremonies walks first, after him the incense-bearer, and then the light-bearers, each with a burning taper. A sub-deacon follows, with his hands joined, as if he were saying his prayers. The deacon comes next, with the New Testament borne upon

his breast. This devout assembly, passing in review before the altar, salute it with bended knees as they pass along, and when they are arrived at the place for reading the gospel, the deacon, who then stands between the two taper-bearers, turns to the right of the altar, opens the book, and begins the lesson out of the gospel. When the deacon says, *Dominus vobiscum*, the bishop rises, and lays aside his mitre and his gremial. When he comes to these words, *Here beginneth the holy gospel*, he makes the sign of the cross; and, to conclude, blesses himself by another cross; after which the prelate resumes his crosier, then makes the sign of the cross again, and all his ministers follow his example.

The gospel being read, he who officiates kisses the book, and all of them return in the same order as they came;—The assistant-priest incensing the bishop.

In the next place the bishop preaches, or some canon, who is a priest, performs that office for him. After sermon, the deacon, who sings the gospel, goes to the left hand of the bishop, and leaning a little forward, says the *confiteor* before him.

After this confession is over, the assistant-priest publishes the indulgences, and the bishop gives the absolution. If there be no sermon, they go on from the gospel to the creed, which is repeated in form like all the rest.

The offertory follows the creed. The bishop reads it standing and bare-headed. When he has done, he returns to his seat, and puts on his mitre. One deacon takes off his pastoral ring, another his gloves, and some substantial layman presents him the basin to wash his hands. The arch-deacon, whom the ceremonial constantly calls the assistant-priest, gives him the napkin. His lordship goes up again to the altar, supported by his two assistants; the sub-deacon goes to the credence table, and by the help of two acolytes, puts on his shoulders the veil which covered the sacred vessels, in such a manner, that it hangs a little lower on the right side, than on the left. Then with his left hand he takes the chalice and paten, on which are two hosts, duly prepared, and covered with a pall. The right hand lies lightly over the veil, the longest side of which is made use of to cover the chalice. An acolyte follows the sub-deacon to the altar with wine and water. The deacon presents the paten to the person who officiates: all this part of the mass, which is celebrated in a solemn manner by the bishop, is performed as in common masses.

The assistant-priest must take care that the prelate who officiates exactly follows the rubric of the mass; and some or

the ministers must stand on each side the altar with lighted tapers, to honour the elevation of the sacrament.

When the bishop elevates the host, the deacon who kneels on his right side, takes up the border of the celebrant's planet. He observes likewise the same ceremony at the elevation of the chalice. It must be observed, that an acolyte incenses the body and blood of our Lord, during the elevation of both one and the other, three times successively. After that the ministers, who attended the mysteries of the sacrifice with their lighted tapers, withdraw to the outside of the presbyterium to extinguish them, unless they assist in the administration of the sacrament.

After the *Agnus Dei*, the assistant-priest places himself at the bishop's right hand, and a deacon on his left. The former kneels, whilst the celebrant says a short prayer, then rises again immediately, and both of them kiss the altar. The celebrant gives the kiss of peace to the priest, who turns his left cheek to receive it. After this mutual greeting, the assistant-priest distributes the kiss which he has received amongst the choir, beginning with the clergy of the highest quality in all the congregation. The laity kiss the pax, or instrument of peace, which, at less solemn masses, is constantly made use of instead of an immediate kiss. There is no variation in what follows, from the ceremonies observed at common masses.

The most solemn mass for the dead, is that which the bishop himself celebrates. The melancholy occasion of the ceremony does not admit of any pompous decorations on the altar. All the flowers, festoons, relics, and Mass for the dead. images, are removed. Six yellow wax-lights, and a cross in the middle, are the only ornaments. Two other tapers of the same kind give light to the credence-table, which is covered with a very plain small table-cloth, and on which there is no other ornament than what is absolutely necessary for so mournful an occasion; such as a mass-book, a holy water-pot, a sprinkler, a thurible, a navet, and a black cloth for absolution. The acolytes spread a black cloth upon the altar, and the bishop officiates likewise in black. As soon as mass is over, he puts on a pluvial of the same colour; the dress of his ministers, the episcopal chair, and the pontifical books, are all black. The bishop who celebrates this melancholy mass, has no crosier in his hand, no gloves on, nor his sandals upon his feet; nor does he say the *Judica*, the *Reminiscaris*, the *Quam dilecta*, nor several prayers which are said at other masses. After the *Confiteor*, he kisses the altar, but not the book; nor do the ministers kiss any thing what-

ever during the celebration of it; for kisses on such melancholy occasions are forbidden. They do not cross themselves at the *Introite*, nor is the altar perfumed with frankincense at the beginning of this mass. In short, not to mention several other differences which are of less moment to the laity than the clergy, we shall only observe, that the person who officiates does not smite his breast at the *Agnus*; that he does not give the kiss of peace; that he concludes the mass without the usual blessing; that no indulgences are published; and that the deacon, if it be a general mass for many, says the *Requiescant in Pace*, in the plural number, for the repose of the dead.

The homily follows, and the pulpit for that purpose is hung with black; and if it be a particular mass for any private person, remarkable for his quality or virtues, his fortune and charitable endowments, the mass for the rest and tranquillity of his soul in the other world, is followed by a funeral panegyric.

A *Chapelle Ardente*, or a pompous representation of the deceased, is in the mean time erected, and adorned with branches, and illuminated with yellow wax-lights, in the middle of, or some other part of the church, or round the monuments of persons of distinction. If the deceased be not buried in that church, this *chapel* may be placed in the nave, if he be a layman; or, if a clergyman, in the choir, in case it be separated from the presbyterium; for it is never allowed to be placed there. The head of a priest and the feet of a layman, are turned towards the altar. After the homily, they proceed to the absolution of the deceased, after the following manner. The gospel of St. John being read, the person who officiates, with the deacon and sub-deacon, returns to the middle of the altar, from whence, after one genuflection, or one profound bow, in case there be no tabernacle, they go to the epistle-side. The sub-deacon, when at the bottom of the steps, takes the cross, and after he and the deacon have laid aside their maniples, all of them proceed to the place where the *Chapelle Ardente*, or representation is erected, in the same order as if to the interment of the corpse. The incense-bearer, and he who carries the holy-water, walk first; the sub-deacon follows, between the two light-bearers, with the cross; after them come the choir, with yellow tapers in their hands. The person who officiates, with the deacon on his left-hand, walks last, and no one except himself is covered, unless they go out of the church, and then all are covered alike.

Being arrived at the *Chapelle Ardente*, where the celebrant

is to give absolution to the deceased, the incense-bearer, and the acolyte who is the holy-water-bearer, place themselves in that part of the chapel which fronts the altar, but somewhat inclining to the epistle-side, and behind the person who officiates, who has the deacon on his right hand. The sub-deacon who carries the cross, and two light-bearers, stand at the other end, at the head of the corpse, a little towards the gospel-side. When they are all placed, the person who officiates uncovers himself, and, taking the ritual out of the deacon's hands, begins the absolution of the deceased by a prayer, the first words of which are, *Non intres in judicium, &c. Enter not into judgment, &c.* We shall omit some of the responses that come afterwards, such as the *Libera nos, Domine, &c.* to come to the benediction of the incense, after which the celebrant walks round the representation, sprinkling it with holy-water, perfuming it on both sides, and making many bows and genuflections. When he has performed the great work of absolution, he says the *Pater*, and thereupon turns to the cross, repeating several verses and prayers which are inserted in the rituals. *Lastly*, he makes the sign of the cross on the representation, and says the *Requiem* for the deceased, to which the choir answer, *Requiescat in Pace,—Let him rest in peace.* After the absolution, the celebrant and his attendants return in the same order as they came.

About the beginning of the fourth century, great attention began to be paid to the cross, on account of St. Helena's good fortune, who was the mother of the Emperor Constantine the Great. She is said to have found the true cross in her voyage to the Holy Land.

Devotion paid
to the cross.

The son, who was as religious as his mother, painted the cross on his standards; or rather ordered them to be made in that form. It is reported, however, that the cross was not introduced into churches till the beginning of the fifth century, notwithstanding it had appeared upon the coins, colours, shields, helmets, and crowns of the emperors, long before that time. The sixth Universal Council, held at Constantinople, about the close of the seventh century, decreed that JESUS CHRIST should be painted in a human form upon the cross, in order to represent in the most lively manner imaginable, to all Christians, the death and passion of our blessed Saviour; but emblematic figures of him had been in use for many preceding ages. CHRIST was frequently delineated in the form of a lamb, at the foot of the cross, and the Holy Ghost in that of a dove. Sometimes a crown was set over the cross, to intimate to the faithful, that the crown of everlasting glory would be the re-

ward of their sufferings for the cross of CHRIST. A stag likewise was sometimes painted at the foot of this sacred wood, because that beast, being an enemy to serpents, is the symbol of CHRIST, who is the enemy of the devil. But all these emblematical figures were laid aside, at the sight of JESUS CHRIST represented on the cross in the human form, by a decree of the sixth Œcumenical Council. This was the origin of crucifixes.

The cross which CHRIST suffered on, as some have affirmed, was made of oak. This was fortunately found by St. Helena, together with the inscription written over it. Pope Sergius, about the year 690, found another large piece of the cross, which is carefully preserved at Rome; and in 1492, the inscription was found again in a church that was repairing in the same city. It was said to have been concealed in a wall, and the troubles of the times had occasioned it to lie there forgotten. Upon this occasion, Pope Alexander VI. issued a bull, promising a yearly pardon of their sins to all such devout Christians, who should annually, on the last Sunday in January, visit the church where that inscription had been discovered. A large part of the same inscription upon the cross was likewise to be seen at Thoulouse, amongst the Benedictine monks, until the close of the eighteenth century. It was publicly exposed twice a year, viz. the third of May and the fourteenth of September; and at such times it was steeped in a certain quantity of water, which was afterwards given to the sick, whose faith led them to believe that they derived a great benefit from it. In order to reconcile this relic with that at Rome, the same arguments must be made use of as a certain monk does with respect to the nails of the cross. Two of those nails which fastened our Saviour to the cross, were found in the time of Constantine, who adorned his helmet and horse's bridle with them. Rome, Milan, and Treves, boast of having one of those nails in their possession: that at Rome is to be seen in the Church of the Holy Cross of Jerusalem, and is annually exposed to the veneration of the people; that at Milan has equal respect paid to it, and as there is some reason to believe this to be the same with Constantine's, it is very happily applied to one of the prophecies of the Prophet Zacharias, viz. chap. xiv. verse 20. That of Treves is not quite so much regarded; but, however, it deserves no less the adoration of the devout. These are the three remarkable nails which pierced CHRIST's hands and feet. The others, to which it has been thought proper to ascribe the melancholy honour of having been instrumental to our Saviour's suffer-

ings, are either those which have been rubbed against the former, in order to receive the same divine and miraculous qualities: or they are only little parts of the true and genuine ones, like that, for instance, at Aix-la-Chapelle, which is the point only of that shown at Rome; or they are only such as have fastened the various pieces of the cross together. Some of them are likewise supposed to be nails of crosses to which several holy martyrs were formerly fixed; and as martyrs are the members of CHRIST, there is some authority for maintaining them to be the nails of our Saviour's cross. Pope Innocent VI. in 1353, appointed a festival for these sacred nails.

In regard to the genuineness of the cross found by St. Helena, we suspect some difficulty would present itself in establishing that important point, for there are a great number of Catholic churches which boast of being in possession of the *genuine* cross, and consequently declare St. Helena to be an impostor. It is, however, of no great moment, since the false and the true crosses possess the same power of performing the most extraordinary miracles. This is, however, positively denied by the true believers in the St. Helena cross; and in order to substantiate this faith, they affirm that she was puzzled how to distinguish our Saviour's cross from two others which she found near it; viz. the crosses of the two thieves; but St. Macarius, however, very kindly and opportunely stepped in to solve the important problem: he directed the people to join with him in prayer, and begged of God that he would vouchsafe to discover to him which was the true cross: and God heard him. A woman at the point of death was brought to the crosses of the two thieves, and made to touch them one after another, but to no manner of purpose: after this, she was brought to our Saviour's, and was immediately conscious that her distemper was removed; whereas, till that time, the most artful medicines had proved ineffectual.

The cross of the good thief was long after found, and carried to Rome. It is at the Church of the Holy Cross of Jerusalem.

Loretto is famous for the image of our Lady. There is likewise a miraculous image made by St. Luke, Celebrated in the Borough of Cirolo, on the road to that crucifixes. city.

The *Santissimo Crocefisso* in the Church of St. Dominic the Great, at Naples, is composed of wood; nor does the coarseness of the stuff in the least diminish its value; the gratitude it showed to St. Thomas Aquinas, by thanking him, in an eloquent speech, for his beautiful and instructive wri-

tings, no doubt redoubles the zeal of all those devout Christians who visit the chapel.

The *Santo Volto* at Lucca is made of cypress, and dressed in a very pompous vestment; its shoes are silver, covered with plates of gold; and its head is adorned with a crown, set all round with jewels. It is said that Nicodemus was the artificer who made it; but it is the general belief, that the face is the only part for which we are indebted to the said Nicodemus; nor ought this belief to be questioned, except by those stubborn, stiff-necked heretics, who presume to impugn the veracity of the following narrative. The bold undertaking having drawn down certain angels from heaven, out of curiosity, to see how Nicodemus could accomplish so important a task, they were soon tired with the slow progress which he made; and, being moved with compassion for a man, whose zeal had prompted him to undertake a more than human work, they, in a truly angelic manner, gave it the finishing stroke themselves; and on that account the crucifix took the name of *Santo Volto*. How this wonderful crucifix came to Lucca we acknowledge ourselves at a loss to determine. At first it was carried, or rather went of itself, and took up its abode at St. Fredianus's Church; but either finding itself there too much confined, or having particular reasons for removing its quarters, it fled to the cathedral of Lucca, and remained suspended in the air, until an altar was erected for it, on the spot where it was found. This charitable crucifix, one day, according to Curtius, was determined to bestow one of its shoes upon a poor man, who begged its charitable assistance. This gift was made known, the shoe was redeemed, and the poor man had the value of it given him in gold.

The crucifix at Loretto is famous for divers miracles. The angels transported it with the *Santa Casa* from Palestine to Italy. A crucifix of St. Mary Transpontina at Rome, frequently conversed in the most familiar manner with St. Peter and St. Paul.

The sacred crucifix at Trent is remarkable for the approbation which it gave to the decrees of the council held in that city in the sixteenth century.

In the church of the Beguine nuns at Ghent, there is a crucifix with its mouth always open. One of the Beguines, affronted at being excluded from a party of pleasure, which had been made one day in the carnival, complained to the crucifix of it, which, at the same time that it exhorted her not to disturb herself, nor to be vexed at the disappointment, invited her to be its wedded bride, and she died the next day!

Ever since that time, the crucifix has remained with its mouth open!

We must not omit the crucifix at Bavaria, which was discovered by a stag that was hunted by some dogs. The stag showed it to the huntsmen with his foot, and never attempted to make his escape, till he had discovered the crucifix to them. This miracle happened in the reign of Charlemagne, and gave the name to the Convent of Pollingen, the first syllable of which seems to express the barking of dogs. A fair was established at Pollingen, by which means the crucifix, convent, and church, which St. Boniface erected there, soon grew famous, and drew upon Pollingen the jealousy of Weilhaum, a small adjacent village. They procured the fair to be removed thither, which slackened the devotion of the Bavarians, and soon occasioned the crucifix to be forgotten; but it soon revenged itself, by becoming an incendiary, and laying the little town of Weilhaum in ashes. Notwithstanding this public calamity, that town could not agree to part with the treasure which it had so unjustly obtained; but a second fire, which once more destroyed it, obliged the unhappy town to restore what it had so sacrilegiously usurped.

In a church at Cologne there is a crucifix, the head of which is covered with a peruke. The date of this head-dress is not known, but all that can be said of it is, that it cannot be of any long standing, since the use of perukes is pretty modern. This peruke is very marvellous, for the hair is never diminished, although the devotees who visit it, never take their leave without carrying away one or two locks of it.

We shall not enter into the history of an infinite number of crucifixes, dispersed over various parts of the Catholic countries, some of which have shed tears, others sweated blood, and others again have discovered sacrileges, and struck the malefactors either blind or lame. Some have even restored life to the dead, and others health to the diseased, and all have distinguished themselves by some miraculous event. Neither shall we mention any domestic crucifixes, since their favours seldom reach farther than the families which they protect; we cannot, however, in justice to the latter, omit to mention the crucifix which obliged F. Bencius with several nocturnal visits, and at last made him determine to assume the Jesuit's habit.

From the adoration of wooden crosses, the Catholics proceed to that of metal objects, amongst which bells maintain a very exalted rank, at the same time that they are invested with qualifications, of which, for some particular reason, the Protestant bells are

Custom of having bells in churches.

wholly destitute. Amongst other incomparable properties of the Roman Catholic bells, they are said to represent the duration of the Gospel, whose glorious sound has been carried throughout the whole earth. They likewise represent the Church encouraging the faithful to praise the Lord, and the pastors of the Gospel preaching the word of God. They have besides several other mysterious significations, which are to be met with in the rituals. And, as a further proof of the miraculous power of the Catholic bells, it is stated, that in a church at Rome there was formerly preserved a part of the *sound* of the bells of Jerusalem.

The ceremony of blessing bells is by the people called christening them, because the name of some of the saints is ascribed to them, by virtue of whose invocation they are presented to God, in order that they may obtain his favour and protection. The benediction devotes them to God's service, that he may confer on them the power, not of basely striking the ear, but of touching the heart by the influence of the Holy Ghost. When they are thus blessed and rung out, they contribute very much towards the priests' success in exorcisms, &c.

It is the bishops peculiar province to perform this ceremony, which consists chiefly in washing the bell inwardly and outwardly with salt and water, and anointing it with oil. It is afterwards in a manner baptized with holy chrism, upon which it is consecrated in the name of the sacred Trinity; and the saint who stands its godfather is then nominated. The bell thus christened or consecrated is then perfumed.

Pope John XIII. was the first who baptized bells, by giving his own name to that of St. John de Lateran in 965. As the consecration of bells represents, according to the rituals, the consecration of pastors, so the inward and outward ablution, succeeded by the anointing with oil, denotes the sanctification of their baptism; the seven unctions in the form of a cross, show *that pastors should excel all other Christians in the graces of the Holy Ghost, and possess the fulness thereof, typified by the seven gifts*; the anointing the inside with the chrism signifies a complete fulness of the Holy Ghost, with which the bishop finds himself endowed by his ordination. The perfuming includes mysteries of no less importance. As the smoke of the perfumes arises in the bell, and fills it, so a pastor who is adorned with the fulness of God's spirit, receives the perfume of the solemn vows and supplications of the faithful.

Durant, in his treatise *De Ritibus*, says, that "The metal of a bell denotes the strength of the preacher's understanding,

and the clapper his tongue. The stroke of the clapper, the censure of the latter against immorality and profaneness; the part that holds the clapper signifies the moderation of the tongue. The wood on which the bell hangs represents the wood of the cross; the pieces to which the wood is fixed, the oracles of the prophets. The cramp-iron, fixing the bell to the wood, expresses the preacher's attachment to the cross of CHRIST. The bell-rope likewise includes considerable mysteries; the three cords, for instance, of which it is made, are the three senses of the scripture, *viz.* the historical, the moral, and the allegorical: they are likewise emblematical of the three persons of the Holy Trinity.

Images were early introduced into churches, and were designed to heighten the devotion of the people by such objects as strike the senses. God is painted in churches like a venerable old man, he having styled himself the "*Ancient of Days*;" the Son is represented likewise as a man, he having put on a human form; and the Holy Ghost in the form of a dove, the hieroglyphic of simplicity and integrity. The angels are painted as young boys, with wings on their shoulders; their character and industry, as the ministers of God, being described by nothing more aptly than the youth of man, and the agility of birds. Jesus Christ was formerly represented in the form of a lamb, with one foot before the cross; and sometimes as a shepherd with a lamb on his shoulders. The manner of painting the Holy Ghost like a dove is very ancient; and even the Eucharist was formerly kept in a box, made in the shape of that bird.

Benediction
of images.

There are few Christians, who are strangers to the pretended miracles and wondrous effects of the images of the Catholic Saints. We shall give the reader some instances. The image of Jesus Christ, which was wrought by an impious wretch had stabbed with his dagger, on feeling the blow, laid its hand upon the wound: this image is famous at Naples. But that of "*Our Lady*," now at Rome, in the Pauline Chapel, made by St. Luke, the celebrated painter and evangelist, is no less remarkable. It is reported that the angels have frequently sung the litanies round her. The image of St. Catharine of Sienna has often driven away devils, and wrought several other extraordinary miracles. Our Lady of Lucca, being treated in a very insolent manner by a soldier, who threw stones at her, and had nearly broken the head of the young Jesus, whom she held in her right arm, placed the child in a moment on her left! and the child liked

that situation so well, that since that accident, he has never changed it! It would be tedious here, to give the history of several other miraculous images, there being entire books written upon the subject, to which we must refer the curious reader.

By the sacred or holy shrouds is meant that in which the body of the Redeemer was wrapped in the sepulchre, while the soul descended into hell to triumph over death and the grave. There are two celebrated shrouds in

The holy Europe, that of Bezancon, and that of Turin.
shrouds.

Both of these were brought from Palestine in the time of the Crusades, about the beginning of the twelfth century.

The shroud of *Bezancon* is famous for the miracles it has wrought. It has even raised the dead; and this resurrection,

Shroud of which happened in the fourteenth century, considerably increased its reputation. The Church of St. Stephen, where this sacred relic was once kept, was soon found too small. The vast crowd of devotees, who flocked in from all quarters to see it, obliged them to erect a wooden theatre before the church, and afterwards a stone one, from whence it is exposed to public view twice a year, viz. on Easter-day, and on the Sunday after Ascension. Chifflet, in his Dissertation, has preserved the memory of the miracles, which were performed by this relic. It has several times cured desperate distempers, restored the blind to sight, put a stop to the plague; nay, *the very images of this holy relic* have wrought miraculous cures.

The holy shroud of *Turin* falls nothing short of the other; this likewise was brought from Jerusalem, and we are in-

Shroud of formed by Chifflet, that, after two or three times
Turin. changing its situation, it fixed itself at last at Tu-

rin, in the *Chapel of the Holy Shroud*, which is within the cathedral. This relic is noted equally with the other for its surprising miracles. In 1534, its very presence only, delivered some that were possessed of devils; and if the father of a certain child, who saw his son drowning, had not invoked its aid and assistance, the youth would have been inevitably lost. It is exposed to public view on the fourth of May, being its festival, which was instituted by *Julius II.* in 1506. According to Chifflet, the shroud was then at Chamberg. The plague which raged in Italy, in 1578, was the cause of its being brought to Turin. Duke Emanuel Philibert, who had it translated, promised to restore it to the people of Chamberg; but neither he, nor his successors, ever per-

formed that promise; and the Savoyards complain, that their country has been exposed to great calamities ever since it has been removed. The mule which carried the sacred relic, and would not stir one step beyond the gate of Chamberg, is a manifest proof of the right which the inhabitants possess to such an invaluable property. Pope Julius established a society in honour of this sacred relic, to comply with the devotion of Duke Charles and Claude his mother. He added indulgences for those who visited its chapel and paid their devotion there on stated days.

Besides these two shrouds, there is one deposited in the church of St. Cornelius at Compeigne. There are three others at Rome; one at Milan; one at Lisbon; and one at Aix-la-Chapelle: most of them are known by the name of *Veronica*. There are likewise two others in the latter city; one called the *holy garment* in which *Joseph of Arimathea* wrapped the body of Our Blessed Saviour, when he put him into the sepulchre; the other, which they particularly call the *Holy Handkerchief*, is that with which the face of CHRIST was covered, and which *St. Peter* found in a separate place from the other vestments, as an infallible testimony that CHRIST was risen.

No layman is permitted to make use of any sacred utensils whatsoever. It is the privilege of the clergy alone to handle them; this custom is borrowed from the Jews. Sacred vessels, &c. belonging to the altar.

The *Chalice* must be made either of gold or silver: in the infancy of the Church, the chalices were all wood; but in process of time they were made of glass or marble, and at last of silver or gold. The bishop is obliged to consecrate the chalices, as well as the patens, both within and without. Small chalices, generally, are nine inches in height, and large ones eleven or twelve. The Chalice.

The *Paten* must be made of the same metal as the chalice, and the use of it is to hold the consecrated host; it must likewise be answerable to the size of the chalice, that is, about six or eight inches in diameter. The Paten.

The *Pix*, in which the Holy Sacrament is deposited, must be, at least, of silver, gilt within, and its foot must be half a span high. The height of the cup must be proportioned to its breadth, and the bottom must have a gentle rising, in order the more commodiously to take out the wafers when there are but few in it, and to cleanse it when there is occasion. The wafers are not to lie above eight days at most in the *pix*, without the latter being cleansed, lest The Pix.

they should happen to grow mouldy. A veil in the form of a tent made of a rich white stuff, with a fringe round it, must cover this precious repository of the wafers.

There must likewise be a box to carry the communion to the sick, made of silver, gilt within, and it must be put into a white silk purse, and hung about the neck, in such places as are difficult of access. The box and pix must be blessed.—There must be another box for large wafers which are round, and rather larger than the others; and this may be made of silver, tin, pasteboard, &c. lined with white taffeta within, and adorned with some rich silk without: a round leaden plate, covered with taffeta, must be put into the box, that the wafers may be always ready. These wafers must neither be kept in too dry, nor too moist a place. Such as are too stale must never be made use of.

The *Sun* for exposing the Holy Sacrament must be made of silver: the foot of the smallest must be a span in height.

The *Sun*. This sun must have two crystals, one third of a span diameter, or more, that a large wafer may the more commodiously be put between; and this must be set in a little half-moon made of silver, and gilt. One of the crystals must be fastened to the sun by a small chain, like the case of a watch: there must be a cross, likewise over the sun.

The *Thurible* may be made of silver or pewter, but there should be four chains to it. Two thuribles are used in pro-

The *Thurible*. cessions of the Holy Sacrament, but at no other times. The navet must be of the same metal with the thurible.

Germanus of Constantinople says, that the thurible represents the human nature of CHRIST. The burning of the perfume is his divine nature; the perfume itself, the Holy Ghost; the incense is the emblem of penance, of preaching the gospel, and of the prayers of the faithful. It also represents the virtues and good works of the saints. The thurible, according to St. Austin, is likewise the image of Christ's body. St. Ambrose very gravely observes, that an angel appears at this ceremony.


The *Incense* which is made use of at church, must be of an odoriferous smell, and be a little broken before it is put into the navet, but not reduced to powder.

The *Holy-water-pot* ought to be made of silver, pewter, or tin; the sprinkler of the same, or else of wood, with hog's

The *Holy-water-pot*. bristles or wolf's hair twisted round about it; and at the end of it there must be a hollow

knob with holes, in which a small sponge is enclosed. There must be two vessels of pewter, delf, or earthenware, for washing the corporals, pales, purificatories, and chalices. In the place where the wafers are made, there must be another pewter or earthenware vessel, to be appropriated to this use, and no other.

The *Peace-utensil* must be made of gold, silver, or embroidery, with some pious image of the crucifix, or other mystery upon it. It must be half a span high, not quite an inch broad, and end in a semicircle at top. There must be a small handle to hold it by to which a veil must be fastened, of the colour of the service of the day, to wipe it with. The Peace-
Utensil.

The *Corporals* must be made of fine white linen; not too thin, nor stitched, and without lace; but if there be any lace, it must be very narrow, and not more than two fingers broad at the projecting edge. In that part where the priest most commonly kisses the altar, a small cross must be placed, and made of white silk, or thread in this form . The corporals must be folded in such a manner, that all the ends may be in the inside, and not seen. The Corpo-
rals.

The use of corporals is said to have been appointed by Pope Eusebius, or by Sylvester I. This represents the sheet in which our Saviour's body was wrapped after his death, and for that reason can be made of nothing but linen.

The *Pales* must be made of the same linen as the corporals, and lined with stiffening pasteboard. Upon these there must be neither embroidery, cross, nor image, nor any lace round them; but four small tassels only at the four corners to hold them by. They must be blessed with the corporals, and no person under a sub-deacon may presume to touch them. The Pales.

The *Purificatories* are made of linen, and are two spans in length; they are folded three times double, and there must be a small cross of blue thread in the middle of them. The Purifi-
catories.

The outside of the *Purses* for the corporals is made of the same kind of stuff as the other decorations, but the inside is lined with fine white linen, with a strong pasteboard between. These purses are about a span wide, are fastened by a button and loop, and have a cross embroidered on the outside, of about three quarters of a span in length. The Purses.

The *Veil of the chalice* is made of silk, and of the same

The Veil of the Chalice. colour as the rest of the decorations; it is three spans square, and has no cross, or any other figure whatever.

In those churches in which the solemn service is performed, the sub-deacon must have veils of ten spans long, and as wide as the silk, of four colours, viz. white, red, green, and purple, wherewith to hold up the paten at high mass. Black veils are never made use of, not even at masses for the dead, nor even on Good Friday. They must be made therefore of white silk, and be edged with lace. *Alet's Ritual* adds, "that in the most celebrated churches, there must be another white veil of the same size, but more costly, to throw over the shoulders of the celebrant, when he carries the host in procession; and in the parish-church, there must be a canopy likewise of white silk, for the holy *viaticum*, when it is carried to the sick, of five or six spans long, and four wide, or rather more. The vallance, with the fringe, must be a span and a half deep, and both must be made of white silk. It must be carried with two poles of five or six spans long, which are covered with the same silk as the canopy, if they are neither painted nor gilt." He who carries the Holy Sacrament to the sick, is inferior to him who carries it in procession.

There must be veils, likewise, or covers, to the crosses and images in passion-week, which must be made of camlet, or some other stuff of purple colour, but without any figure, image, cross, or other implements of the passion.

In every parish-church there ought to be a standard, about nine or ten spans high, and six long, of a colour suitable to its patron; and in the middle of it the patron must be represented in embroidery. This standard must be of satin, damask, taffeta, or camlet, lined with linen, or a light stuff, and have a silk border and a fringe all round it. The pole of it must be about three yards long.

The pope performs the ceremony of baptizing and giving his benediction to the *Agnus Dei's* in the first year of his pontificate; and repeats it on every seventh year.

The Benediction of the *Agnus Dei*. These *Agnuses* are a sort of pastils, made of wax, in the form of an oval medal, upon which JESUS CHRIST, is represented under the appearance of a lamb, holding a cross; for which reason they are called *Agnuses*. The wax was formerly provided by one of the gentlemen of his holiness's chamber, who held his office from the master or chamberlain of the sacred palace. Those who were desirous to have any *Agnuses*, laid some wax upon the altar of St. Peter; and an apostolic sub-deacon fetched it

thence, and carried it to an apartment in the pontiff's palace. The sub-deacon, and his colleagues, assisted by some of the acolytes, moulded the wax, and with great devotion and neatness, made it up into *Agnuses*, according to the directions of the Roman ceremonial. These sacred pastils are now provided at the expense of the apostolic chamber. The wax, which is the ground-work or substance of them, is melted in a quantity of sacred oil and chrism of the preceding year. When the materials are completely prepared, the *Agnuses* are presented to the Pontiff in one, or more basins, and he gives them his benediction.

On Easter-Tuesday, the sacristan performs the benediction over the water used for baptizing the *Agnuses*; and the next day, as soon as the pontifical mass is ended, his holiness, dressed in his amict, his albe, his stole of white damask with a silver lace, and having a mitre of cloth of gold upon his head, consecrates the water, which was blessed by the sacristan on the preceding day. This water is put into a large silver basin; the consecration consists of the usual blessings, to which the holy father adds a prayer to Almighty God that he would vouchsafe to sanctify those things which wash away the sins of mankind, &c. after which, he takes some balm, and pours it into the water, adding thereto the holy chrism, which he likewise pours into it, in the form of a cross. He offers up several prayers to God during the performance of this ceremony; then he turns to the *Agnuses*, blesses and incenses them, imploring God to shower down upon them all the virtues generally ascribed to them. A second and third prayer follow; after which, his holiness, seated in an easy chair, prepared purposely for him, having a napkin girt about him, and his mitre on, takes the *Agnuses*, which the gentlemen of the chamber present him in silver gilt basins, one after another, and throws them into the holy water.

The cardinals, in their fine linen albes, take them out the next moment, with a spoon made use of for no other purpose. Their eminences afterwards lay them on a table covered with a clean white cloth, and there wipe them with a napkin, which they likewise wear in the form of an apron, and the assistant prelates range them upon the table, where they are left till they are thoroughly dry. After this baptism is over, the holy father rises, and in a prayer addresses himself to the Holy Ghost, beseeching him to bless them; and then makes his application to JESUS CHRIST: after this, they are put into the basins again, and his holiness invites all the cardinals who have assisted him in this office, to dine with him. This work

is resumed on the Thursday following, and continued till the Friday, when they are all blessed. This ceremony is performed in the presence of several ambassadors, and a multitude of strangers, whom curiosity brings thither to be spectators.

On the following Saturday, being the day on which the *Agnuses* are distributed, a chapel is held, and mass is sung by a cardinal priest, at which his holiness assists in his pontificalibus. As soon as the *Agnus Dei* is sung, an apostolic sub-deacon, dressed in his robes, with a cross-bearer, two wax-taper-bearers, and the thuriferary before him, goes to the pontiff's sacristan, and takes from him a basin full of the *Agnus Dei's*, lately blessed, and wrapped up in party-coloured China cotton. The sub-deacon is followed by a clerk of the ceremonies, and two chaplains in their surplices. When these arrive at the door of the chapel, they all kneel, and the sub-deacon, with an audible voice, sings these words in Latin. "Holy father, these are the new lambs, who have sung their hallelujahs to you. They drank not long ago at the fountain of *holy water*. They are now very much enlightened.—Praise the Lord!" To which the music in the choir answers, "God be praised: hallelujah!"—After this, the sub-deacon rises, and walks forwards. As soon as he gets to the entrance of the balustrade in the chapel, he repeats the words just before-mentioned. When he approaches the pontifical throne, he repeats them a third time, and prostrates himself at the feet of his holiness, who receives him sitting, with his mitre on. When the cross enters, however, he and the whole congregation rise; but the holy father sits down again immediately, though the sub-deacon remains kneeling at his feet, whilst he distributes the *Agnuses* in the following manner.

Two auditors take a fine white napkin, and present it to two cardinal-deacons assistants, who lay it in a decent manner on the knees of his holiness; and the two former hold the two ends of the napkin, whilst the sacred college partake of the holy father's munificence. Their eminences, after their usual testimonies of respect and veneration, present their mitres, with the horns downwards, to his holiness, who puts as many *Agnuses* as he thinks proper into them. Formerly, he bestowed no more than three to each of the sacred college, two to the other prelates, and one to the clergy, &c. Their eminences, in return, kiss his holiness's hand and knee. After they and the clergy have received their share, several ambassadors, and other persons of distinction, come forward with white napkins, to partake in their turn, but not so liberally, of these spiritual benefits.

The distribution thus made, the pope washes his hands, the sacred college unrobe, the celebrant returns to the altar, mass concludes with a double hallelujah, and his holiness bestows his benediction on his children, with a great many indulgences, which are published by the celebrant. The popes, as we find by the *Roman Ceremonial*, had formerly a basin full of *Agnuses* brought to the table after dinner, which they distributed among the apostolic court.

All the *Agnus Dei's* which remain out of the prodigious number that have been blessed, are left in the prelate's custody, who is master of the pope's wardrobe; and he distributes them every day at certain hours among the pilgrims, and other foreigners, who go and ask for them. By one of the constitutions of Pope Gregory the thirteenth, made in 1572, all those who were not in holy orders were forbidden to touch these *Agnus Dei's*, unless on some emergent occasion; and, as a still farther precaution, all laymen were directed to have them set in glass, or crystal; and that those who had the means of wrapping them up in some rich embroidery should so order it, that the *Agnus* might appear on one side as in a reliquary. Painting them was likewise prohibited by the same constitution, upon pain of excommunication; the whiteness of the wax, in which these figures in relievo were formed, being esteemed by Pope Gregory more suitable than any other colour whatsoever, to represent the *immaculate Lamb of God*; which are the words made use of by all the popes, from Gregory the thirteenth to this day, in speaking of the miraculous effects of *Agnuses*.

Before the person to be canonized is registered amongst the number of the saints, his holiness holds four consistories. The two first are private, the third public, and the fourth between both. In the first, he causes the petition of those, who demand to have their saint universally acknowledged as such in the Catholic Church, to be examined by three auditors of the rota, and directs the cardinals to revise all the instruments relating thereunto. In the second, the cardinals make their report. The third, being held in public, the cardinals pay their adoration to his Holiness; after which, one of the consistorial advocates makes the eulogium of the person who is to be proclaimed a saint, and gives a long and particular account of the life and miracles of this faithful servant of God. The fourth consistory is held in the ducal hall, where his holiness assists in his plain mitre and pluvial; at which no adoration is paid to him. Patriarchs, archbishops, bishops, pro-

Canoniza-
tion of the
saints.

thonotaries, and auditors of the rota, are admitted at this consistory, and the train bearers perform their office dressed in purple; but after the extra, every body goes out but the prelates before-mentioned. This consistory is held for taking the votes of those prelates who are for and against the canonization, and, as soon as it is resolved upon by a plurality of voices, the pope intimates the day appointed for the ceremony.

On the canonization-day, the pope officiates in white, and the cardinals are dressed in the same colour. St. Peter's church is hung with rich tapestry, upon which appears the arms of his holiness, or of that prince or state which requires the canonization, embroidered with gold and silver, and the church is most pompously illuminated.

Canonization is attended with immense expense to those princes who are desirous of the glory of procuring it for some favourite Christian. Beatification is in some measure the forerunner of it; for beatitude naturally leads to sanctity, and to a supposition, that he that is accounted blessed here below, ought to be acknowledged as such in heaven.

The surprising virtues which were discovered in the relics of saints, for the cure of those who were diseased, and for the salvation of men's souls, gave birth to their translation. It was likewise the received opinion, that the bodies of the saints were able to draw down the blessings of heaven on cities and states; accordingly, nations put themselves under their protection. The numberless miracles which are related in the legends, as well ancient as modern, convinced the populace that the protection of saints was a circumstance of the last importance. Their images were erected in their churches, and their names included in their litanies. To that time, canonizations were made by a tacit consent of the clergy, without the least formality; but the use of registers, known by the name of *Diptics*, had obtained long before that, in which were set down the names of martyrs, and those who died in a reputation for holiness, after having distinguished themselves by a virtuous life.

There is no instance of a solemn canonization, before that of St. Sibert, whom Pope Leo III. canonized about the beginning of the ninth century; though some attribute the first solemn canonization to Pope Adrian, and others are of opinion that St. Ulric, who was canonized by Pope John XIV. or XV. in 993, was the first saint canonized in form; and some again ascribe the glory of this institution to Pope Alexander III.

A magnificent theatre is always erected in St. Peter's church, for the ceremony of canonization. On the day the

ceremony is to be performed, the entrance to the theatre is lined by the Swiss guards, who are likewise posted at the doors of the basilica; a detachment of the horse-guards is drawn up in St. Peter's square, another of the cuirassiers in that of the Vatican, and a third in all the streets through which the procession passes. These guards, together with those which are posted in the other quarters of Rome, and the garrison of St. Angelo, make a general discharge of their artillery, when the signal is given that the ceremony is begun, and all the bells in the city are rung at the same time. *Te Deum* likewise is sung to instrumental music, &c.

The following is a description of the honours which Pope Clement XI. paid, in 1712, to those saints who were publicly acknowledged by his holiness as the mediators of all Christians with JESUS CHRIST.

All the avenues of St. Peter's were lined with troops on the twenty-second of May, and the whole force was scarcely sufficient to withstand the impetuous movements of the vast concourse of people, of all ages and sexes, whom devotion and curiosity had brought thither to see the ceremony. This prodigious concourse of all ranks and degrees flocked from every part of Rome to St. Peter's by break of day; whilst the clergy, both secular and regular, according to the order issued to them, assembled at the Vatican. The cardinal-deacons then robed the pope in his proper ornaments; after which his holiness set out for Sixtus's chapel, with the cross before, and the clergy behind him. As soon as he arrived there, he made the sign of the cross over his devout retinue, took off his triple crown, and kneeling down, prayed before the altar. Afterwards he gave out the hymn, which begins with these words, *Ave Maria Stella*, &c. and then kneeled down again, till the music of the chapel had concluded. The holy father now arose, put on his mitre, returned to his chair, and there received from Cardinal Albani, who was his nephew, and petitioner for the canonization, two large painted tapers, and a small one, with the arms of his holiness and the images of the candidate saints upon them. His eminence, at presenting them, kissed the hand and knee of the pontiff. One of these large tapers was, by the directions of his holiness, given to the constable Colonna, in order to carry it in the procession before him, and to hold it in his hand during the ceremony of canonization. The other was not disposed of, there being no person present of suitable quality to walk abreast with the constable on this solemn occasion. The small taper was given to the cup-bearer, first chamberlain to his holiness, but a general dis-

tribution of tapers was first made among the clergy, each of them being distinguished according to his rank and dignity.

It is related of St. Raymond of Pennaforte, that, after having long censured the dissolute deportment of a king of Spain,

Power of the modern saints. without being able to wean him from his criminal engagements, he determined to leave him to his own wicked inclinations, and to embark for Barcelona.

But his majesty having charged all persons not to take him on board, St. Raymond revived the miracle of our Saviour's walking upon the water; he threw his cloak into the sea, and taking his staff in his hand, embarked in this new kind of boat, and arrived safe in Catalonia. The very gate of the convent to which he belonged, opened of itself at the saint's approach.

St. Peter of Nola, who styled himself *an unprofitable servant*,—that *off-scouring of the earth, and mere nothing*,—had very frequent and familiar discourses with God and the Blessed Virgin. The apostle St. Peter one day honoured him with a visit, in the same posture in which he was crucified, that is, with his heels upwards.

St. Francis silenced the swallows who interrupted him in his sermon, so that they stood still and mute with awe and wonder, whilst he expounded the truths of the gospel.

St. Anthony of Padua likewise, being unable to gain the attention of the heretics, desired them to go to the sea-side, in order to convince them of the tractable disposition of the fishes, which immediately left their streams to hearken to his preaching, and stood erect on their tails, enraptured with his pious discourses.

St. Francis of Paula was endowed with a supernatural strength. He carried away, without any assistance, a prodigious large rock, which obstructed the foundation of the dormitory of a monastery which he was building. He likewise hung up in the air a piece of rock, which broke from a mountain, and threatened to demolish his new edifice, and to dash in pieces a great number of his workmen. He afterwards supported it with his staff, and left it for a long time in that position, exposed to public view, to the edification of a multitude of people, who resorted thither in crowds to see such a miracle. This rock was afterwards made use of in finishing his new monastery.

Manna has been often seen to fall on St. Agnes of Monte Pulciano in the form of a cross. The blessed Virgin appeared to her on one of the festivals of the Assumption, with the child JESUS in her arms, whom she permitted to *embrace, and*

press to her breast. At her departure, she left the saint a cross, which the child JESUS wore about his neck. We shall take notice of the rose that appeared in the middle of winter, in a little dish which this female saint served up to two hermits; but we cannot forbear mentioning the advances, in point of complaisance, which she made after her decease to St. Catherine of Sienna, who went to pay her a visit at her sepulchre: whilst the living saint was stooping down to kiss the feet of the dead one, the latter, through an excess of humility, lifted up her foot, and touched the other's lips.

St. Bonaventure, the celebrated author of the "Psalter of our Lady," which was printed in 1665, not being able to take the sacrament in the usual way, through a violent indisposition in his stomach, had the holy pyx placed upon his breast, and the sacred wafer instantly penetrated that way into his very bowels, in order to become the life of his soul.

St. Ignatius, who was given over by the physicians, was visited by St. Peter, who by a touch with his hands wrought on him a miraculous cure. After that, the blessed Virgin paid him a visit, and made him a present at the same time of a celestial ointment, called the "Balm of Chastity." When he was upon his pilgrimage to Jerusalem, he determined to visit the Mount of Olives, and Christ himself condescended to be his guide. He cured persons afflicted with the falling sickness, cast the devils out of such as were possessed, and recovered several by permitting them to touch the hem of his garment. To conclude, the number of miracles which are said to be wrought by him, amount to two hundred, or thereabouts.

St. Clare *was in such esteem with God, that without the least difficulty she obtained whatever she asked.* From her very infancy, there appeared in her surprising signs of her future sanctity: instead of playing like other children, she did nothing but pray, fast, and give alms, in her early years. All the saints indeed, as appears by their lives, have begun with these general practices of devotion; but from her very infancy St. Clare went farther, and wore a hair-cloth to mortify the flesh, and to put a stop to all irregular passions. She was very seldom alone in the heat of her pious exercises. A very beautiful child, with two radiant wings, flew into her lap one day, and clasping her with them, carressed her with many fond endearments. At another time, although she was indisposed, and unable to go to matins, yet she heard distinctly the office, which was sung at a church some considerable distance from the monastery, *and what is most surprising, she was so happy as to see the young child JESUS lying in his manger.* In her

dying moments, Jesus was seen near her, accompanied by several virgins crowned with flowers. One of them in particular, *who wore a close crown more radiant than the sun*, drew near and embraced her; the rest spread *a carpet of inestimable value* over her body. The daughters of this holy mother, especially the nuns of the *Ave Maria*, inherited her austerities and virtues, though they did not attain the gift of miracles.

St. Barbara, accompanied by two angels, gave the communion to the little blessed *Stanislaus Kostka*, who lay dangerously ill in a family who were heretics, and would not permit the holy sacrament to come into their house. He held many conversations with the Virgin Mary, "his lady, his mistress, and his good mother;" and a great number of miracles were wrought by his mediation after his death. When he died, the Virgin Mary, accompanied by several other blessed virgins, came to conduct him to heaven. Devils quitted the bodies they had been tormenting at the very name of Stanislaus. He restored as many persons to life as he was years old, though he lived to the age of nineteen, and this extraordinary miracle was thought so easy for him to perform, that it grew into a proverb in Poland: "Let us go," said the people, "to the blessed Stanislaus, who raises the dead." The application of this young saint's image, cured a young Jesuit of fourteen years of age at Lima, in the year 1673, but upon this condition, that he should say a *Pater Noster*, and an *Ave Maria*, every day of his life, in honour of the little Polish saint; and that, on the eve of his festival, he should live upon bread and water, and once perform the spiritual exercises of Saint Ignatius, to the honour and glory of his blessed son Stanislaus. All such as were afflicted with palpitations, swellings, broken limbs, sore-eyes, fevers, &c. were confidently assured that a little wine in which one of the saint's bones had been steeped, was an infallible remedy for such distempers and accidents.

St. Roche, the patron and protector of such as are infected with the plague, distinguished himself by several remarkable cures. The dog that is usually painted lying by him charitably fed the saint, at a time when the pestilence was outrageous.

The blessed St. Clare of Montefalco had the figure of CHRIST upon the cross, and all the instruments of his passion, engraved upon her heart. Her repeated declarations of this miracle to the nuns of her convent, made them curious to see if it were true, and after her death they divided her heart, and were convinced of the truth of her assertion.

St. Bridget raised ten persons, that were dead, to life. St. Theresa appeared, after her death, (which was occasioned by

an excess of divine love,) to several persons, to inform them of the high degree of glory to which she was exalted. We shall omit her wondrous visions, and the love-wound made in her heart by a seraph, with a golden arrow pointed with red hot steel.

St. Didacus cured several diseased persons, with the oil of a lamp which burnt before an image of "Our Lady." One day, having no provisions, on a journey he was making with one of his companions to his convent, he prayed to God to support them in their distress, and instantly they found a table spread before them upon the grass, and the entertainment, "though not elegant, was very wholesome and refreshing!"

St. Xaverius raised several to life during his mission in the East Indies. Being in the neighbourhood of Amboyna, he calmed a raging tempest by plunging his crucifix into the sea. In the eagerness of the action, his crucifix slipped out of his hand, but an officious fish miraculously restored it to him in a moment, and on giving it, took care to hold it upright, to denote the triumph of the cross over the infidels!

St. Thomas a Becket, archbishop of Canterbury, was amply rewarded for the violent death he suffered, by the numerous miracles he wrought afterwards, and which, if we may believe father Giry, he still continues to perform: no sooner was this saint buried, than he declared himself the physician of a multitude of sick persons. It is very remarkable, that the saints of the latter ages go far beyond those of the apostles' days in raising the dead to life.

The blessed St. Rosa was under five years old when she consecrated herself to God. Father Oliva observes, in his eulogium on this saint, that mankind had an infinite loss in God's not creating Rosa in the terrestrial paradise instead of Eve!—Her ambition to suffer made her ingenious in searching out the means of mortifying herself. This pious maid would frequently rub her cheeks and eyes with the bark and powder of Indian pepper, to prevent her from going to balls, or appearing in company: for the sharpness of the pepper made her face all bloated and full of ulcers. Rosa had the glory, moreover, of finding out fresh methods of mortification every day, and of reproaching nature perpetually with the enormous crime of having made her so handsome. It is certain, that nothing is so shocking and insupportable to saints of a mystical constitution, as corporeal beauty, which they relinquish to the devil, together with all other sensual enjoyments.

The blessed Rosa, like JESUS CHRIST, multiplied loaves, and she miraculously replenished an empty vessel to comfort

her mother, who was sick, with celestial honey. Her vocation, or call, has no parallel instance in the history of the saints. As she was passing by the church of St. Dominic, for whom she ever had a particular esteem, she found herself inspired to go in, and pay her last respects to the image of Our Lady of the Rosary. No sooner was she on her knees, than she remained immoveable, and nailed, as it were, to the ground. Astonished at so extraordinary a prodigy, she promised the blessed Virgin to become a nun of the third order of St. Dominic; and, as soon as she had finished her prayer, she, without the least difficulty, accomplished that in a moment, which she had not been able to do in several hours before with great and repeated efforts.

Rosa, at her commencing a new life, thought it a duty incumbent upon her to invent new austerities. She tied a great chain thrice round her waist; and having put a padlock upon it, she threw the key into a well. She long bore with patience the pains which this chain gave her, but at length was obliged to seek relief, and, human means failing, she made her applications to the Blessed Virgin, who immediately opened the lock. The blessed Rosa thinking her lodgings at her mother's too commodious, determined to build herself a sorry hut at the end of the garden. She was soon attacked by a whole army of gnats; and as they interrupted her contemplations, she thought proper to make a truce with them upon the following conditions:—The gnats were allowed to shelter themselves in the cell during excessive heat or cold; and they stipulated on their side never to incommode her more, and even to withdraw, whenever she found them in any way offensive. We cannot forbear observing, that the largest trees in the garden, when Rosa passed by them to her cell, bent down their branches, and their trunks also, as a testimony of their profound veneration.

The Church calls the holy Virgin in her litanies, the Mother of God, the Queen of Angels, the Refuge of Sinners, the Mother of Mercy, the Gate of Heaven, the Mystic Rose, the Virgin of Virgins, &c. There is no title of honour, which some divines of the Church, and particularly modern ones, have not bestowed on the Virgin Mary. Having robbed paganism of every thing that was most magnificent and glaring, to bestow it on the mother of JESUS CHRIST, they have continued to invent such splendid names, as even the most fruitful imagination of the poets was never capable of devising. The heresies against her, insensibly produced an excess of reverence and

Devotion paid
to the Blessed
Virgin.

devotion to her. In the earliest ages of the Church, she was called Queen of Angels, and Mother of God; afterwards the controversies which arose on her account, made her advocates advance every thing they could think of to make her considerable against heretics. She has been looked upon as the disposer and depositary of God's favours, the Treasurer and even Queen of Heaven, the Spring and Fountain of salvation and life, the Gate of Paradise, the Mother of Light, and Intercessor between God and Man; the Hope of Mankind, and the Ocean of the Deity. Some authors have styled her "Goddess;" and Father Salazar, about the end of the sixteenth century, declared her the Accomplishment of the Trinity. The Psalter, and indeed the whole Bible, had been applied to her long before that declaration; and it has been proved both by miracles and apparitions, that the blessed Virgin appeases the wrath of Christ against sinners; and that she has the power of absolving, binding, and loosening.

Whoever hopes to draw down the blessings of the Virgin upon him, must salute her every day both at his going out and coming in. The legends have transmitted to us several remarkable instances of the advantages arising from the *Ave Maria*; not to mention the thousand days' indulgences granted by several popes, particularly Leo X. and Paul V., to all those who shall repeat it at the hour of the *Angelus*. Christians, however, are not so exact in the practice of this sort of devotion as to imitate St. Marguerite of Hungary, who said an *Ave* kneeling, before every image of the Virgin which she met with on her way; nor St. Catherine of Sienna, who repeated as many *Aves* as she went up steps to her house. Fasting on Saturday, in honour of the Virgin Mary, is still looked upon, in Catholic countries, as a treasure of indulgences and delights, and as an excellent preservative against eternal damnation.

The greatest part of the holy and immaculate *Virgin's* hair has been preserved; and, as to her *milk*, the good Catholics tell us that not one drop of it was ever lost; innumerable relics having been made of it immediately after our Saviour's nativity. A portion of it is to be seen in different parts of Christendom; and that church or monastery which is in possession of such an invaluable relic, considers itself as peculiarly blessed. Our lady's *wedding-ring* is preserved with the utmost respect at *Perouse*; the fate and miracles of which are all described in a book published in the beginning of the seventeenth century, entitled, *De Annulo Pronubo Deiparæ Vir-*

Relics of the
Blessed Vir-
gin.

ginis, autore J. Bapt. Lauro. Colon. 1626. The Blessed Virgin's *clothes* are to be seen at Rome, and several other places; her *shifts* at Chartres and Aix-la-Chapelle; one of her *handkerchiefs* at Treves; her *girdles* at our Lady of Montserrat at Prato, &c. one of her *combs* at Rome, another at Bezancon; her *shoes* at our Lady of Puy and St. Flour; and one of her *slippers* in Brittany. The *measure of her foot* is in the custody of the Spaniards. To conclude, it is not to be questioned, but that all the various pieces of her goods, kitchen-furniture, toilette, and implements of household, have been carefully preserved; her gloves, head-clothes, veils, bed, chair, and the stones on which she washed our Lord's swaddling-clothes; her candles, the oil for her lamp, and all her earthen-ware, are still exposed to public view. It is true, indeed, that these things were lost for several ages; but the monks have had the good fortune to find them one after another. No relic of her sacred body has been left upon earth; it having been taken up to heaven in its perfect form, without injury or mutilation.

The jubilee, as to its origin, is half Jewish, half pagan. That joyful season procured liberty among the Jews to those who were slaves; an acquittance from their debts to those who were poor, and the recovery of their effects to those who, through necessity, had been obliged to pawn them. The ground itself was not cultivated during the year of the Jewish jubilee. The pope, by the Catholic jubilee, of which the former was but a type, grants the like privileges to Christians. It is a year of rest to them; for his holiness absolves them from sin, relieves the spiritual poverty of the penitent, by opening the treasures of the divine mercy to him, remits his debts, and restores him to the possession of his celestial effects.

Pope *Boniface VIII.* upon his institution of the grand Jubilee, expressly declared by his Bull, that "Those who should visit the basilicas of St. Peter and St. Paul in the year 1300, and every hundred years afterwards, after a free confession and sincere repentance of their sins, should obtain a full remission, together with several indulgences, as extensive as it was possible to grant them to repenting sinners." "It does not appear," says M. Turtin, "that his holiness had any regard to the Jubilee of the Jews, since he not only declined the name of jubilee, but on the contrary, doubled the time prescribed to them." But with Clement VI. the case was different. This pope called that institution "the Jubilee," and ordered it to be celebrated every fifty years.

Several Roman Catholic writers are of opinion, that the jubilee of the Christians bears a very near affinity to the secular games of the ancient Romans.

Clement VI. ordered the jubilee to be celebrated twice in a hundred years. Urban VI. reduced the term to thirty-three years. Boniface IX. solemnized it nine years after; and in process of time, a bull of Sixtus IV. established it once in twenty-five years. His predecessor Paul II. had before fixed it by a decree of the year 1470, to the same time. Sixtus IV. however celebrated a jubilee in 1475, and Alexander VI. not contented with the solemnization of it in 1498, revived it in 1500.

The decrees of Paul II. and Sixtus IV., however, do not hinder the popes from declaring a universal jubilee on their exaltation to the pontificate, as well as on some other extraordinary occasions. The holy gates, however, are never opened but for the twenty-fifth year's jubilee, which, if we may be allowed the expression, brings with it a universal indulgence; for "the hearts of the faithful are comforted thereby, and joy entereth into the house of the Lord."

The jubilee grants to those confessors who are approved by their superiors, a power to absolve in all reserved cases, also from all censures, and the greater excommunication; to annul all suspensions relating both to benefices and ecclesiastical offices, and to take off interdicts. It permits them likewise to alter vows, in case they have no relation to religion or to chastity; or that they are not of the nature of those which engage to perform certain pilgrimages, such as those to Rome, Jerusalem, and St. James of Galicia.

When his holiness has appointed the Jubilee, he gives notice of it, by his apostolic letters, to all the prelates throughout Christendom; and these cause it to be published in their respective dioceses, with proper exhortations, in order that the faithful may put themselves into a condition of obtaining those advantages which attend it. The intentions of the holy father are explained; those churches which are to be visited are nominated; certain acts of devotion, which are always attended with proper indulgences, are prescribed; and proper litanies, and prayers peculiar to the solemn occasion of the jubilee, and to the subject which procures it, are caused to be printed. No society, no religious order, must absent itself from the processions which are ordered for celebrating this act of devotion. The people, with their magistrates, and the rest of their superiors, are invited to attend it with all the modesty required by an act of religion. On those days which are set apart for

fasting and repentance, the bishop and his clergy are enjoined to appear overwhelmed with sorrow, and filled with sentiments of humiliation. They are to pray with heart and mouth to the Almighty, and to offer him the fruits of a sincere contrition, which consists in the renunciation of all those engagements by which men are in general devoted to the world, and in a strong resolution to instruct the people by their own pious example.

The pope notifies the universal jubilee, by a bull which he causes to be published the preceding year, on Ascension-day, at the time of his giving the solemn benediction. An apostolical sub-deacon begins the publication, in the presence of the whole Court of Rome, reading a bull in Latin; and after him, another sub-deacon reads it with an audible voice to the people in Italian. As soon as he had finished, the pope's twelve trumpets in ordinary begin to sound, and immediately after them, twelve huntsmen sound their silver horns, by way of concert, at the same time that the whole of the artillery of the castle of St. Angelo are discharged.

On the fourth Sunday in Advent, the apostolical sub-deacons publish the bull for the jubilee a second time, and on the three days which immediately precede Christmas-day, the bells throughout the whole city proclaim the solemnity, which is to commence the next day.

On the twenty-fourth day of December, of the holy year, all the secular and regular clergy assemble together at the apostolic palace, and thence march in procession to St. Peter's at the Vatican. When the clergy come into the great square before St. Peter's, they find the doors of the church shut, and all the entrances of the portico lined with guards, to hinder the mob from getting in. The pope, the cardinals, and bishops, dressed in their white damask robes, having their mitres on, now meet in Sixtus's Chapel, at which place his holiness signs the *Veni Creator*, with a lighted taper in his hand. All the cardinals, having each of them likewise a taper in their hands, come out, according to their respective rank, and repair to the Swiss portico, where the holy father nominates three of them as his legates *a latere*, to go and open the gates of St. John de Lateran, St. Mary Major, and St. Paul without the walls. Their eminences having received the orders of his holiness on their knees, repair to the appointed churches, preceded by trumpets, hautboys, and a troop of men, half in warlike, and half in religious armour. Their march begins as soon as the pope has opened the holy gate at St. Peter's



Pope knocking at the Sacred Gate. p. 313.



Absolution of pilgrims by touching them with a rod. p. 311.

The chief of the Roman soldiery has the charge of this holy gate, which is always opened by his holiness himself, unless the infirmities of age, or some other particular indisposition renders him incapable; in which case, the cardinal-dean officiates for him.

The Vicar of JESUS CHRIST, being seated on a throne, which is raised before the great gate, and in the middle of the great portico of St. Peter's, rests himself for a short time there; after which the prince of the throne presents him with a golden hammer, which the holy father takes into his right hand; then rising from his throne, he goes and knocks at the sacred gate. The sacred gates are representations of God's grace. The passage of the pilgrims through them denotes the Christian's passage from the state of sin to that of grace. All those who perform the duties appointed by his holiness, in the four Basilicas at Rome, must pass through these holy gates. It is likewise pretended, that the opening of these gates represents the opening of the Church unto all men, provided they go to it after a sincere conversion. The holy father opens the gate, which signifies his having the key of the celestial treasures. The three blows upon the gate represent the three quarters of the world, Europe, Africa, and Asia, to which his holiness offers the treasures which are in his disposal; or it may be said, that the three strokes with the hammer are an excellent representation of that joy, which the jubilee gives to the faithful in heaven, on earth, and in purgatory.

The pope is followed by his clergy with tapers in their hands, and, knocking thrice against the gate, says with an audible voice, *Aperite mihi portas justitie*,—*Open unto me these gates of justice*; to which the choir add, "This is the gate of the eternal, the just shall enter therein," &c. In the mean time, the head masons break down the wall which closes up the sacred gate, and the rubbish of it is distributed amongst the devotees, who pick it up with all imaginable zeal and eagerness, in order to rank it amongst their precious relics. This wall is erected on purpose, in such a manner as to hold but very slightly by its four sides. The stones are not fastened with cement, on which account, as soon as the holy father knocks at the sacred gate, it falls without any resistance.

When the wall is demolished, the penitentiaries of St. Peter take their brooms, clear the gate, and sweep the bricks and the lime that remain, out of the passage. The mouldings, as well as other decorations round the gate, are now washed with holy water. When this operation is over, his holiness

descends from his throne, and begins this anthem, "*Hæc dies quam fecit Dominus,—This is the day which the Lord hath made,*" &c. which the choir repeats after him. Being arrived at the sacred gate, the holy father repeats several prayers, takes the cross, kneels down before the gate, begins the *Te Deum*, rises up, and passes through it, still singing as he goes along. His clergy follow him. Every body now hurries into the church, either to witness the magnificent ceremony, or to assist at the vespers in the pope's chapel. After vespers, the cardinals pull off their white robes, put on their red copes, attend his holiness to the door of his apartment, and then withdraw. On Christmas-day, after the mass of the day, the holy father goes to the benediction-pew, and blesses the faithful by way of jubilee.

The jubilee having lasted a year, concludes with shutting up the sacred gates, which is done on Christmas-Eve, twelve months after they were first opened. On that day the pope, his cardinals, the clergy, and the persons of the highest distinction in the court of Rome, go to St. Peter's in their robes of state.

Vespers are said; after which the clergy, having lighted tapers in their hands, offer their obeisance to the *holy face*, which is known by the name of *Veronica*. Then his holiness sings an anthem, which begins with these words, *Cum jucunditate exhibitis,—Ye shall go out with joy*. As soon as it is begun, every one uses the utmost expedition to get through the holy gate. The holy father, when every body has gone through it, goes up to it, and turning towards it, says, *Adjutorium, &c.*,—*Our help, &c.* together with some other prayers, in which he blesses the stones and mortar which are intended to shut the gate, which the jubilee had opened. The pope himself lays the first stone, under which several medals are concealed, which serve to transmit the memory of this pious ceremony to future times.

The holy father having laid the stone, washes his hands, and returns to his throne; then *Salvum fac populum,—Lord save thy people, &c.* is sung. In the mean time, the masons complete the walling up of the gate, in the midst of which they set a copper cross, whilst his holiness repeats some particular prayers, which he continues till the breach is perfectly repaired. The benediction given by the Vicar of JESUS CHRIST from the pew (which thence takes its name of the *Benediction Pew*) to the faithful, assembled to receive it, concludes this piece of devotion. The cardinals and clergy then throw off their robes of state, return with the pope to his

apartment, and his holiness entertains them with an elegant supper.

Indulgences are the surest touchstones, of which his holiness can make use, to try the faith of true believers; for a great number of devotees imagine that they infallibly secure the attainment of Paradise. The origin of indulgences is hinted at in a passage of St. Cyprian; but the release from torments was not known by the name of indulgence, till a long time after. It was common enough however, in the seventh and eighth centuries. Pope Sergius, in the year 884, gave three indulgences of forty days each, to those who should visit the church of St. Martin on the Hills, on the festival peculiarly devoted to the service of that saint.

Indulgences were originally no more than the softening of pains, imposed upon sinners condemned to penance, which in the primitive ages of Christianity were very severe. The Church had regard to the infirmities of penitents, who could not undergo the rigour of them; but they were at the same time to discover a real contrition, and with a perfect sincerity endeavor to purify themselves from their crimes, according to their strength. A relaxation from ecclesiastical pains gradually introduced into devotion certain practices, seemingly difficult, but yet much easier than spiritual worship; and nothing gave a greater scope to the abuse of indulgences than the commutation of pains into pecuniary fines, which were greatly advantageous to the priests, and showed them the way of selling the remission of sins. St. Bernard, whilst preaching up the indulgences of Pope Eugenius III., at once inflamed the hearts of the believers of his age, with a spirit of war and contrition, and showed them that the atonement of their crimes, and the remission of their torments, were annexed to those crosses and swords, wherewith he persuaded them to arm themselves against the infidels.

St. Bridget declares, in her Revelations, that in a vision which she had of the LORD JESUS CHRIST, he informed her, "That the most infallible way to atone for all her sins, was to procure indulgences; that, with respect to himself, whenever he was inclined to treat any soul with tenderness and affection, he would advise it to reside constantly at Rome, there being no place in the world where so many indulgences could be procured. Indeed, there is no city more commodious than Rome, for devotees who would turn their piety towards this object; for its basilicas have indulgences for every day in the year; and on festivals they are redoubled.

Indulgences were at one time granted for all kinds of sins

and crimes, the prices of which were rated, and the remission often set up to auction. A malefactor in Italy might, for *ninety livres*, compound for a crime, for which, on the other side of the Alps, he would be hanged or burnt. The application for indulgences was either by the payment of ready money, or by saying, or causing to be said, certain masses; by assisting at certain offices, and certain processions; by confessing and receiving the Eucharist; by alms-giving, or wearing particular habits, crosses, chaplets, crowns, beads, &c.

Pope Leo X. having undertaking to complete the magnificent edifice of the Basilica of St. Peter, according to the example of Pope Julius, had recourse to indulgences, which he every where published; and all those who should contribute what was demanded of them towards the erection of St. Peter's, were permitted to eat eggs and cheese in Lent, and to make choice of their own confessor. In order to come into possession of ready money, the sums arising from these indulgences, were farmed out to the highest bidders, who, not only for the purpose of reimbursing, but likewise of enriching themselves, chose such preachers of indulgences, and collectors, as they thought most proper. These were well paid to induce the people, in order to procure pardon, to contribute whatever such covetous and sacrilegious wretches insisted upon. Some of these preachers of indulgences raised the price and value of them to such an exorbitant pitch, as to induce the people to imagine that they were secure of salvation, and of delivering souls out of purgatory, as soon as they had paid the money demanded for the letters, testifying they had procured the indulgence. The clerks of the farmers, likewise, who had purchased the profits of these indulgences, were seen daily in the taverns and brothels, carousing, and spending part of that money in all manner of licentiousness, which the poor insisted was barbarously extorted from them.

We shall now treat of beads, chaplets, rosaries, and other accessories to devotion. The historians of the Crusade wars

Various Instruments of piety.

say that Peter the Hermit first taught the soldiers to count their prayers by the chaplet; the use of which soon grew very common. But Father Giry gives some instances of prayers being said by tale or computation, long before the invention of the chaplet; and Ryckle, in his life of Gertrude, gives us an account of a rosary which this saint made use of at her devotions, in the seventh century. Saint Dominic, the founder of the order which bears his name, and of the holy office of the Inquisition, greatly advanced the credit of this instrument of

devotion, by declaring, that the blessed Virgin had brought him one from heaven, after a miraculous manner, composed of a certain number of beads, which he called the *rosary*. It is still looked upon as one of the most valuable exercises of devotion by a great number of Catholics; with regard to the chaplet, it is not to be questioned but that it came from the Mahometans. Peter the Hermit borrowed it from them, in favour of those soldiers of the Holy Wars, who were not able to read, nor to make use of a prayer-book.

These and other instruments, or assistants to devotion, were the foundation of four considerable societies. That of the rosary owes its birth to the rosary of St. Dominic.

The rosary is a large chaplet, consisting of one hundred and fifty beads, which make so many Aves. Every ten beads, divided by one something larger, make a Pater. The fifteen large beads are the symbols of fifteen mysteries, which are so many lively images, as it were, in which are to be discerned the intentions of "the Eternal Father in the temporal birth of his son, the casualties that befel him in his infancy, and not only in the private and unknown part of his life; but also in the glorious and immortal part of it." The common chaplets contain only fifty Ave Marias and five Paternosters. Before the person begins to repeat his rosary, he must take it, and cross himself. He must in the next place repeat the apostles' creed, to put himself into a proper disposition for prayer; after which, he must say a Pater and three Aves, on account of the three relations which the Blessed Virgin bears to the three Persons in the sacred Trinity.

After these preliminaries, he passes on to the fifteen large beads, containing ten courses. The Christian devotee must observe to admit himself into the mysteries of each ten courses, by a prayer, which is to be found in those books which treat of the method of devotion with the rosary. The fifteen mysteries are divided into three classes: the first includes the five mysteries of *joy*; the five next are those of *sorrow*, as turning upon our Saviour's Passion; and the five last, those of *glory*, as being destined to his resurrection, ascension, &c. After the rosary, the brethren who have the honour to bear the name of it, must say the litanies and prayers for those who are afflicted in mind, body, or estate, &c. They must lift up their hearts to the Virgin, who is the *Queen of the Rosary, Empress of Heaven and Earth, High Treasurer of the Spiritual Finances and Celestial Riches*: and as the true believers ought not only to pray for each other, but likewise for an increase of the worship of which they make profession; the

brethren and sisters of the rosary must never omit this last article, but use their utmost endeavours to make proselytes to the faith of St. Dominic.

The legends of the order of St. Dominic, and several others, assure us, that the society was appointed by an order from the Blessed Virgin, when St. Dominic was labouring to reduce the Albigenses, and extirpate heretics. After the saint's decease, the devotion of the rosary was totally neglected; but Alanus de Rupe, in 1460, or thereabouts, revived it with great improvements, and for fifteen years together, used his utmost endeavours to procure devotees to it. The society is divided into two branches, one of the common, and the other of the perpetual rosary: the former are obliged every week, to say the fifteen divisions of ten beads each, to confess, and receive the Sacrament every first Sunday in the month; and moreover, to appear at all the processions of the society. The faithful of the latter are under very strong obligations. The first duty incumbent on them is, to repeat the rosary without intermission; that is, there is always some one of them who is actually saluting the Blessed Virgin in the name of the whole society.

The solemnity of the rosary is celebrated on the first Sunday in October. This festival is owing to the piety of Pope Gregory XIII. Several popes have confirmed the way of praying with the rosary by their bulls, and granted to those who shall devoutly repeat it, all suitable indulgences, not only plenary, but particular.

The devotion of the *scapulary* is, in every respect, as exact as that which we have already described. After divers prayers, and pious solicitations, the Blessed Virgin

Scapulary. granted the scapulary to Simon Stoch, commander of the Carmelites, in the same century, and much about the same time that she gave the rosary to St. Dominic. She assured the devotee of her protection, promised to be propitious to all those who should join in the devotion of the scapulary, and to look upon them as her children. She also engaged to save all those, who at the hour of death should be found provided with so precious a badge.

The scapulary of the Carmelites is a small woollen garment, of a dark brown, or tawny colour, which goes over the stomach, back, and shoulders. It consists likewise of two small pieces of cloth, three or four inches square, tied together with two ribands. This is what the brethren of the Order of the Scapulary wear.

The devotees of the scapulary celebrate the sixteenth of Ju-

ly as their festival, which day is likewise devoted to the service of Our Lady of Mount Carmel.

There is nothing which flatters the heart of man more than what is called *good works*, since they are looked on by him as a formal contract, or, as it were, a truce between his passions and the duties of his religion. A Religious Foundations. certain satirist has observed, "That a devotee refuses to pay his debts, though he says his prayers; that he plunders his neighbour, though he gives the tenth to the poor; that he ruins honest families, whilst he is building hospitals; in short, that religion, with the devotee, is the counterpoise of justice." The clergy have always taken advantage of this vanity and self-love, under the specious pretence of showing Christians the road to heaven; but, above all, they have attempted to pave the way to it by foundations, which began in the fourth or fifth century, but the mode of which was not entirely established till the sixth. Nothing was at that time to be seen, but people of all ages, sexes, and conditions, renouncing their worldly possessions for the endowment of churches and convents. New practices of humility sprang up on all sides; for the devotees grew dissatisfied with vigils, which to them appeared too weak. The priests and monks had visions, which enabled them to enter into an immediate correspondence with the saints of Paradise. Measures of a more strong and strenuous kind were taken against the devil, who then began to grow formidable. Several crosses were dug up, and relics were found, which till that time had neither been known nor heard of; even some of the mouths of hell, and two or three of the doors of purgatory, were likewise discovered. The maps of the monks precisely pointed out their height and depth. Nor was this discovery the least valuable and important of the age; a prodigious number of souls got out of purgatory, and some of the damned escaped out of hell. Those who had any regard for their relations immediately took care of them, and new methods were in consequence invented, for alleviating the sorrows of those deceased persons who had their friends to appear for them.

Masses were multiplied, and one sacrifice being now insufficient, a necessity arose not only for ten, twenty, or thirty, but sometimes for thirty thousand. The sovereigns of the Church created new patrons. Altars and churches were founded without number. Swarms of monks and friars overspread the face of the whole earth; and this, they asserted, was all the work of God. Habitations were assigned and revenues appointed them, which were very largely augmented

by the benefactions of pious individuals. We may easily conceive, that convents increased with devotion, and that those who had devoted their patrimonies to the service of the Church, found no other refuge than that of the cassock or the veil; in short, a strong persuasion at that time prevailed, that God could not be served with decorum and propriety but by priests and friars; and nothing, indeed, was to be seen but cassocks, cowls, tonsures, crowns, vows of continence and chastity; voluntary divorces between husband and wife, upon a motive of piety, and with the intent to retire from the world, that they might pray to God at their ease in the society of monks and hermits.

Independently of the foundations of churches, convents, and masses, others were instituted for exposing or carrying the holy sacrament in procession, on those days which are not set apart by the Church for such a purpose; also, for making some particular day more famous than it originally was, according to the institution of the Church. Such is the *foundation* on which the holy sacrament is exposed on the festival of the patron of a parish, or on the festival-day of the saint whose name any person bears, or for whom he has a peculiar respect and veneration. There are likewise other foundations, for offices and prayers in honour of the saints, at such times as their devotees have received any extraordinary mercies and favours from them.

The faithful, throughout all the ages of the Church, have paid great veneration to the relics of saints, and are said frequently to have received great advantages from them. Ignorant devotees imagine that they need only to be devout to some particular relics, to carry them about with them, or to frequent places where they are deposited, in order to die free from sin.

The antiquity of the respect for relics has been attempted to be proved from the translation of Joseph's bones, when the Jews went out of Egypt. It is certain that under the Old Testament, it was thought, as it is now, that whatever has touched the body of a saint acquires extraordinary virtues. This was the opinion of the primitive Christians, and instances of it are to be met with in the Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles; from whence we may infer, that the real body of any saint is capable of producing much more miraculous effects. In process of time the consequences of this notion of virtue and holiness were carried to a greater extent. Some pretended, that it was necessary to collect all those things which had been made use of by the saints, to dig up

their bodies, and to search after their bones and ashes. Then, temples, chapels, and altars, were devoted to their service. The very angels concerned themselves in this important affair, for they are said to have collected the bones of St. Catharine, and buried them upon Mount Sinai. Translations of the relics from one place to another, began to be made in the fourth century with extraordinary solemnity, and the use of shrines for relics began at the same time.

The church always took care to have the shrines in which relics were deposited, solemnly blessed. The purport of the prayer was, that God would grant his protection to those who revered the merits of the saints, and embraced their relics with humility, in order that these faithful supplicants might be guarded from the power of Satan, from thunder, plague, infectious air, wild beasts, and the malicious devices of wicked men.

Oaths were often taken on the relics of the saints; and the oath of the king of the Romans on the blood of St. Stephen at Aix-la-Chapelle, upon his coronation-day, is an instance of this religious custom.

The faithful, who visit relics out of devotion, must touch the sacred limbs of the saints with more than common faith. There is a stated time for the public exposition of them to the devout. The relics of the church of Notre Dame at Aix-la-Chapelle, are exposed once in seven years with proclamations, one of which we shall here transcribe, that the reader may have a more adequate idea of the ceremony. It is as follows:—

“The head and right arm of St. Cornelius are to be exposed; by whose mediation may the LORD JESUS preserve you from the falling-sickness, and after this life bestow on you the kingdom of Heaven. *Amen. Paternoster. Ave Maria. Credo.*”

The blood of martyrs is preserved in various parts of Christendom, Italy and Rome, in particular, are grown famous for the vast quantity that is found in them; nor is this to be wondered at, considering the persecutions of the primitive Christians under the Roman emperors. The earth at Rome is said to be stained with the blood of the faithful. His holiness makes presents of some of this sacred earth to foreigners, thereby endeavouring to gratify those good Christians, who come to Rome upon a religious motive, and are unwilling to return home without some salutary testimonial of their travels.

Miraculous
relics.

As to the miraculous manner in which the blood of mar-

tyrs, according to report, has been seen to melt and run, the devout flatter themselves that God has been pleased to give this satisfaction to all pious persons for their consolation, and as a reward of their virtue. There are now at the present day, several liquefactions of this nature, particularly in Italy. On the festival of St. Eustace, that saint's blood is seen to boil at Rome. The blood of St. John the Baptist does as much, if not more, at Naples; and extends to three different churches. It puts itself in this violent ferment in honour of JESUS CHRIST, and seemingly endeavours once more to proclaim the coming of our blessed Saviour. At Naples too, St. Bartholomew's blood is in as great a heat as that of St. John the Baptist; and so likewise is the blood of St. Stephen, which never fails running on the day on which the finding of his body is commemorated.

On the eighteenth of September is celebrated the ceremony of exposing the head and blood of St. Januarius, patron of the city of Naples, to public view. A solemn procession is made likewise in honour of the Saint, at which the Martyr's head and blood are carried in all imaginable pomp and grandeur. It is so contrived, that these two relics meet together, and as soon as they are within reach of each other, the blood is seen to liquefy, to boil, and to rise to the very rim of the glass, in which it is kept. This miracle is wrought every year, never deceiving the expectations of the people, who are always ready to attest the truth of it.

The liquefaction of St. Vitus's blood, is to be seen in one of the abbies of the diocese of Tarentum; and that of the blood of St. Pantaleon, St. Ursula, St. Laurence, and others, in the several monasteries and churches throughout Italy.

In 1672, Rome raised a recruit of relics from the catacombs of four hundred and twenty-eight saints, most of them anonymous and unknown; which, however, afforded abundance of new relics. Other recruits of the same sort had been made before that time.

In regard to the manner of distinguishing the relics dug out of the catacombs to be genuine,—the apostolic chamber hires diggers to work in the catacombs or subterraneous places, in which sacred bodies, as they are called at Rome, are commonly found. This holy employment is carried on in spring and winter. As soon as the sepulchres are opened, an apostolic commissary examines the marks whereby the bodies of martyrs are to be known. If there be only the name of CHRIST (thus ✝) over these sepulchres, or a single cross, a dove, a crown, an olive branch, without a palm-branch, or

without a vase of wood, or other vessel, in which the blood of the martyrs was usually put, they are looked upon merely as so many Christian sepulchres, and in such a case are never opened. The vessel for holding blood is, in a particular manner, an evident sign of martyrdom, and consequently of holiness. When the necessary tokens here mentioned, have been observed, they proceed to open the tombs with all the precaution which so religious an operation requires.

As the bones are dug up, they are put into little cases, which are afterwards corded up, and sealed with the grand vicar's seal; and then the diggers carry them into the chambers appropriated for relics. The bones are laid upon tables at some distance one from the other, in order that, as they dry, the air may restore them in some measure to their primitive hardness. After this, the cardinal-vicar and the chief sacristan of his holiness, expose these relics to the veneration of the faithful, distributing them as they see proper, and arming them with the necessary attestations: relics of the larger size are bestowed on none but crowned heads, and persons of the first distinction in the church.

The custom of wearing holy relics by way of devotion, or in order to be preserved against casualties, diseases, calamities, &c. is very ancient in the church; since St. Gregory Nysens takes particular notice of a small piece of wood of the true cross, which his sister wore on her finger in a ring.

It is to St. Helena, however, that relics owe the beginning of their high reputation; and yet the cross was at that time the only relic really in fashion. That devout princess foreseeing, that the finding of the cross would inflame the devotion of all Christians, took but a part of it away with her, and left the remainder at Jerusalem to be an object of the pilgrim's devotion. This sacred wood would, by degrees, have been all lost, on account of the constant distributions which were made of it to devotees; but St. Paulinus assures us, that in his time it remained in the same condition: that the faithful were taking away some of it without intermission, but yet they always found it whole and entire.

In process of time, relics of all sorts were worn, but more particularly about the neck and on the breast.

St. Charles Borromeo wore about his neck a tooth of St. Satina. Gregory XII. wore one of St. Catharine of Sienna. Some ages before that, St. Dunstan having broke his cane upon the devil, who appeared to him in the form of a bear, had another made much stronger, in which he set a tooth of the apostle St. Andrew.

Relics were formerly carried in military expeditions, and this was an established custom in the time of Theodosius the Great. The knight-templars, and soldiers in the crusades, carried them a long time after in their expeditions against the enemy of the Christian name. Christian kings, when they went to war, armed themselves with St. Martin's cope, and caused the shrines of saints to be carried at the head of their armies. Du Val de Cernay, the monk, assures us, that, on a dangerous expedition, a body of priests and friars, having the cross before them, and being supported by relics, after singing the *Veni Creator*, which was their signal, advanced against the Albigenses; and that, at the third repetition of a particular verse of the hymn, the rebels of the church fled from the field of battle! Nor did the Bishop of Cominges show less bravery and resolution; for, notwithstanding the small number of the faithful who were facing above one hundred thousand Albigenses, he armed himself with the wood of the cross, and, getting upon an eminence therewith, blessed the soldiers of the Catholic army, who becoming thereby enlivened and inspired, defeated the king of Arragon and his whole army.

Catholic devotion ordains that recourse shall be had to holy relics in case of any public calamity. The blood of St. Januarius, set before the flames of Mount Vesuvius, has never failed to extinguish them. The miracles wrought by St. Genevieve, whenever it has been thought proper to carry her in procession, are well known at Paris; and if we may credit the devotees at Rheims, St. Remi's handkerchief has had no less virtue, at those times when it has been found requisite to produce it, in order to allay or remove public calamities.

At Venice, a leg of St. Laurence extinguishes fires. In a church of that city, holy water, of great virtue, is made with the bone of St. Liberalis. In Sicily, St. Agatha's veil, carried in procession by the clergy of Catanea, puts a stop to the deluges of fire of Mount Gibel; and a piece of cotton rubbed against this veil, has the same effect.

The Carthusians at Cologne have the hem of CHRIST's garment, which the woman afflicted with the loss of blood touched, in order to be cured. The ladies of that place send wine to the Carthusians, to have the relic steeped in it, and drink of it upon any emergent occasion.

Festivals are holidays, or are certain days which the Catholic Church has set apart for the peculiar service of God, in

Festivals. commemoration of some mystery, or in honour of some saint.





Adoration on Good Friday. p. 347.



Procession of the Holy Oils. p. 347.

In the Catholic Church there are *moveable* feasts, *double* feasts, *half-double*, and *single*: but the chief difference between the several classes, is the greater or less solemnity which is used in them. The churches are embellished, and the altars adorned, according to the solemnity of the day; and to the rank which each saint holds in the church. On solemn *double* feasts, the bishop, and even the pope himself, performs divine service in the cathedral; and the abbot, the prior, or dean of the chapter, in collegiate churches. According to the rituals of Italy, the churches, on these high festivals, must be hung with tapestry, and adorned with beautiful and holy images of those whom the church acknowledges as saints. The doors of the churches must be adorned with festoons; and the image of the saint whose feast is solemnized, must be decorated with flowers, and the church strewn with them. The church must, likewise, be open to all during the sacred days; wax-tapers must burn on the altar; the ornaments of the officiating priest must be as rich as possible; and the tapers which stand on the high altar must be thicker than the rest. In short, each parish displays its zeal, in proportion to its riches.

Whenever the feast of the titular saint, or patron, is celebrated, his standard and image must be fixed on the top of the church spire, and the bells set a ringing to his honour. In some places it is customary to have illuminations on the eve and feast of the saint, as a testimony of the love and reverence of the priests and people.

All the high festivals have an *octave*. This custom was first borrowed from the Jewish religion; for it was usual for the ancient Jews to allow eight days to their solemn festivals, in which they are imitated by the moderns to this day. The octave therefore consists of the feast itself, and the seven days which succeed it, though the name of octave is particularly given to the last day of those eight, which answers to the solemn day of the feast. The rituals say, that when two octaves meet, the most distinguished of them shall have the preference, not forgetting at the same time to commemorate the saint, whose octave gave way to the other. In this manner the octave of St. John the Baptist, gives precedence to that of the holy sacrament, whenever they happen to meet: but if the octave of a saint who is patron of a place, should fall out at the same time with that of another saint, who had been either a bishop, an archbishop, or cardinal, the patron would be obliged to yield to the prelate.

Our limits forbid us attempting any thing like a detailed

account of the festivals prescribed by *The Roman Calendar of Feasts and Stations throughout the year*. According to this calendar, it may be perceived that the *Holy City* has not left even *one day* throughout the whole year unconsecrated either by festivals or stations; indeed, that many days are there held sacred to the memory of more than half a dozen saints; that the inexhaustible treasure of indulgences is always open to the faithful, and furnishes them continually with materials to repair the breaches, which Satan may have made in their virtue; and that the clergy of Rome are always in readiness to countermine his works.

We shall select a few days which are sacred to distinguished saints, or on which remarkable festivals are observed; and these will serve as examples of numerous others, which might be mentioned.

This day is sacred for several saints, among whom is St. Macarius, who died A. D. 394. Macarius was a confectioner of Alexandria, but spent upwards of sixty years

Jan. 2. St. Macarius. in the deserts in labour, penance, and contemplation. "Our saint," says Butler, "happened one day inadvertently to kill a gnat, that was biting him in his cell; reflecting that he had lost the opportunity of suffering that mortification, he hastened from his cell to the marshes of Scete, which abound with great flies, whose stings pierce even wild boars. There he continued six months, exposed to those ravaging insects; and to such a degree was his whole body disfigured by them, with sores and swellings, that when he returned he was only to be known by his voice."

The *Golden Legend* relates of him, that he took a dead Pagan out of his sepulchre, and put him under his head for a pillow; whereupon certain devils came to affright the saint, and called the dead Pagan to go with them; but the body under the saint said he could not, because a pilgrim lay upon him, so that he could not move; then Macarius, nothing afraid, beat the body with his fist, and told him to go if he would, which caused the devils to declare that Macarius had vanquished them. Another time the devil came with a great scythe on his shoulder, to smite the saint, but he could not prevail against him, on account of his virtues.

Macarius, at another time, being tempted, filled a sack with stones, and bore it many journeys through the desert. Seeing a devil before him in the shape of a man, dressed like "a herawde," with his clothing full of holes, and in every hole a vial, he demanded of this devil whither he went, and why he had so many vials? The devil answered, to give drink to

the hermits; and that the vials contained a variety of liquors, that they might have a choice, and so fall into temptation. On the devil's return, the saint inquired how he had sped; and the devil answered, "Very ill, for they were so holy that only one, Theodistus, would drink." On this information, Macarius found Theodistus under the influence of the vial, and recovered him.

Macarius found the head of a Pagan, and asked "where the soul of its body was?" "In hell," said the head. He asked the head "if hell was deep?" the head said, "Deeper than from heaven to earth." He demanded again, "If any were there lower than his own soul?" the head said, "the Jews were lower than he was." The saint inquired, "if there were any lower than the Jews?" the head answered, "that false Christian-men were lower than the Jews, and more tormented."

Macarius seems, by the *Golden Legend*, to have been much annoyed by the devil. In a nine days' journey through a desert, at the end of every mile he set up a reed in the earth, to mark his track against he returned; but the devil pulled them all up, made a bundle of them, and placed them at Macarius's head, while he lay asleep; so that the saint with great difficulty found his way home again.

This Macarius is the identical saint who so opportunely assisted St. Helena in the discovery of the genuine cross, and for that one act he certainly deserves to be ranked amongst the most renowned worthies of the Roman Calendar.

This day is devoted in Paris to the feast of St. Genevieve: virgin patroness of that city. The legendary writers inform us, that we cannot pay too great homage to this saint, for the wonders she has performed for upwards of twelve centuries; indeed, the angels returned thanks to heaven for the birth of this blessed virgin. Father Giry, in the *Lives of the Saints*, assures us, that the blessed spirits kept "an extraordinary festival at her birth, and that all heaven was filled with joy." St. Germanus of Auxerre asserted the same to the inhabitants of Nanterre, the first time he saw St. Genevieve, who was born in their city. In the height of her piety, she was seized with so violent a fit of sickness that she was thought to be dead, but in the midst of the torments which her body suffered, "she was ravished in spirit among the angels, where she saw unutterable glories."

The *Golden Legend* relates, that by the Holy Ghost she showed many people their secret thoughts, and that from fifteen years to fifty she fasted every day except Sunday and

Thursday, when she ate beans, and barley bread of three weeks old. A woman once stole St. Genevieve's shoes, but as soon as she got home she lost her sight for the theft, and remained blind, till, having restored the shoes, St. Genevieve restored the woman's sight.

Desiring the liberation of certain prisoners condemned to death at Paris, she went thither and found the city gates were shut against her, but they opened without any other key than her own presence. She prayed over twelve men in that city possessed with devils, till the men were suspended in the air, and the devils were expelled. A child of four years old fell into a pit and was killed; St. Genevieve only covered her with her mantle, and prayed over her, and the child came to life, and was baptized at Easter. On a voyage to Spain, she arrived at a port "where, as of custom, ships were wont to perish." Her own vessel was likely to strike on a tree in the water, which seems to have caused the wrecks; she commanded the tree to be cut down, and began to pray; when lo! just as the tree began to fall, "two wild heads, gray and horrible, issued thereout, which stank so sore, that the people that were there were envenomed by the space of two hours, and never after perished ship there; thanks be to God and this holy saint."

At Meaux, a master not forgiving his servant his faults, though St. Genevieve prayed him, she prayed against him. He was immediately seized with a hot ague; "on the morrow he came to the holy virgin, running with open mouth like a German bear, his tongue hanging out like a boar, and requiring pardon." She then blessed him, the fever left him, and the servant was pardoned. A girl going by with a bottle, St. Genevieve called to her, and asked what she carried? she answered, oil, which she had bought; but St. Genevieve seeing the devil sitting on the bottle, blew upon it, and the bottle broke, but the saint blessed the oil, and caused her to bear it home safely notwithstanding. The *Golden Legend* says, that the people who saw this, marvelled that the saint could see the devil, and were greatly edified. Her holiness now shone with greater lustre than ever in the eyes of the Parisians. "She penetrated into the most inward recesses of their consciences, spent all her time in prayer, and shed so great an abundance of tears, that the floor of her chamber was quite wet with them. Though she had led a life of extraordinary penance, she nevertheless lived to a very advanced age. A great number of miracles were wrought at her tomb, and would undoubtedly have been wrought to the end of the world, had her relics been still there; now they are wrought only at

her shrine. Her shrine of gold and silver, covered with precious stones, the presents of kings and queens, and with a cluster of diamonds on the top, presented by the intriguing Mary de Medicis, was, on calamitous occasions, carried about Paris in procession, accompanied by shrines equally miraculous, and by the canons of St. Genevieve, walking barefoot.

This day is sacred to the memory of St. Simeon Stylites, who astonished all Christendom by his personal mortifications. Simeon went into the monastery of Heliodorus, where the monks ate but once a day; January 5th.
St. Simeon
Stylites. but our saint carried this abstinence to such a pitch, as to eat only once a week. Heliodorus

required Simeon to be more private in his mortifications: with this view, judging the rough rope of the well, made of twisted palm-tree leaves, a proper instrument of penance, Simeon tied it close about his naked body, where it remained unknown both to the community and his superior, till such time as it having ate into his flesh, what he had privately done was discovered by the effluvia proceeding from the wound. It took three days to disengage the saint's clothes, and the incisions of the physician, to cut the cord out of his body, were attended with such anguish and pain, that he lay for some time as dead. After this he determined to pass the whole forty days of Lent in total abstinence, and retired to a hermitage for that purpose. Bassus, an abbot, left with him ten loaves and water, and coming to visit him at the end of the forty days, found both loaves and water untouched, and the saint stretched on the ground without signs of life. Bassus dipped a sponge in water, moistened his lips, gave him the Eucharist, and Simeon, by degrees, swallowed a few lettuce-leaves and other herbs. He passed twenty-six Lents in the same manner. In the first part of a Lent, he prayed standing; growing weaker, he prayed sitting; and towards the end, being almost exhausted, he prayed lying on the ground.

At the end of three years he left his hermitage for the top of a mountain, made an inclosure of loose stones, without a roof, and having resolved to live exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, he fixed his resolution by fastening his right leg to a rock with a great iron chain. Multitudes thronged to the mountain to receive his benediction, and many of the sick recovered their health; but as some were not satisfied unless they touched him in his inclosure, and Simeon desired retirement from the daily concourse, he projected a new and unprecedented manner of life.

He erected a pillar six cubits high, (each cubit being

eighteen inches,) and dwelt on it four years; on a second, of twelve cubits high, he lived three years; on a third, of twenty-two cubits high, ten years; and, on a fourth, of forty cubits, or sixty feet high, which the people built for him, he spent the last twenty years of his life. He was imitated in this folly by several other fanatics; but none of them had the perseverance, or hardness of constitution, to earn any degree of immortality to be compared with that of Simeon. This, however, occasioned them to be called *stylites*, from the Greek word *stylos*, a pillar. Simeon's pillar did not exceed three feet in diameter at the top, so that he could not lie extended on it; he had no seat with him; he only stooped or leaned to take a little rest, and bowed his body in prayer so often, that a certain person who counted these positions, found that he made *one thousand two hundred and forty-four reverences in one day*; which, if he began at four o'clock in the morning, and finished at eight o'clock at night, gives a bow to every three quarters of a minute; besides which he exhorted the people twice a-day. His garments were the skins of beasts, he wore an iron collar round his neck, and had a horrible ulcer in his foot. During his forty days' abstinence throughout Lent, he tied himself to a pole. He treated himself as the outcast of the world, and the worst of sinners; worked miracles; delivered prophecies; had the sacrament delivered to him on the pillar, and died bowing upon it, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, after having lived upon pillars for *seven and thirty years*!—His corpse was carried to Antioch, attended by the bishops and the whole country, and worked miracles on its way.

Without mentioning several of the miracles in the Golden Legend, which are not fit to be related, it may be observed that it is there said of him, that after his residence on the pillars, one of his thighs rotted a whole year, during which time he stood on one leg only! Near Simeon's pillar was the dwelling of a dragon, so very venomous that nothing grew near his cave. This dragon met with an accident; he had a stake in his eye, and coming all blind to the saint's pillar, and placing his eye upon it for three days, without doing harm to any one, Simeon ordered earth and water to be placed on the dragon's eye, which being done, out came the stake, a cubit in length; when the people saw this miracle, they glorified God, and ran away for fear of the dragon, which arose and adored for two hours, and returned to his cave!

A woman swallowed a little serpent, which tormented her for many years, till she came to Simeon, who causing earth and water to be laid on her mouth, the little serpent came out

four feet and a half long. It is affirmed, that when Simeon died, Anthony smelt a precious odour proceeding from his body; that birds, men, and beasts cried; that an angel came down in a cloud; that the Patriarch of Antioch taking Simeon's beard to put among his relics, his hand withered, and remained so until a multitude of prayers were said for him, and it was healed; and that more miracles were worked at and after Simeon's sepulture, than he had wrought during the whole of his life!

On the day of the feast of this saint, the pope, cardinals, princes, and even private gentlemen, send their horses and their mules to be blessed by him; the saddles and harnesses of these beasts are also carried to him. They bless and sprinkle the beasts and their equipage, in the name, and for the sake of the saint, upon consideration for a certain sum, viz. two paoli for each beast. Another ceremony in which St. Anthony is applied to, is that of exorcising, conjuring, and delivering up to the devil, mice, locusts, or grasshoppers, and all other noxious animals.

According to St. Athanasius, Anthony was born in 251, at Coma, near Heraclea in Egypt, and in that neighbourhood commenced the life of a hermit: he was continually assailed by the devil. His only food was bread with a little salt, he drank nothing but water, never ate before sun-set, sometimes only once in two or four days, and lay on a rush mat or on the bare floor. For further solitude he left Coma, and hid himself in an old sepulchre, till, in 285, he withdrew into the deserts of the mountains, from whence, in 305, he descended and founded his first monastery. His under garment was sackcloth, with a white sheepskin coat and girdle. He was taught to apply himself to manual labour by an angel, who appeared, plating mats of palm-tree leaves. Athanasius informs us that Anthony always prayed whilst he was at work; and that he detested the Arians; that he would not speak to a heretic unless to exhort him to the true faith; and that he drove all such from his mountain, calling them venomous serpents. He was very anxious that after his decease, he should not be embalmed, and being one hundred and fifty years old, he died in 356, having bequeathed one of his sheepskins, with the coat in which he lay, to his biographer.

St. Athanasius is very particular in his account of St. Anthony's warfare with the infernal powers. He says that hostilities commenced when the saint first determined on hermitizing; "in short, the devil raised a great deal of dust

in his thoughts, so that by bemudding and disordering his intellects, he might make St. Anthony let go his design." In his first conflict with the devil he was victorious, although Satan appeared to him in an alluring shape.—Next he came in the form of a black boy, and was again defeated.

After that, Anthony got into a tomb, and shut down the top, but the devil found him out, and with a great company of other devils, so beat and bruised him, that in the morning he was discovered, by the person who brought his bread, lying like a dead man on the ground; whereupon he took him up and carried him to the town church, where many of his friends sat by him until midnight. Anthony then coming to himself, and seeing all asleep, caused the person who brought him thither to carry him back privately, and again got into the tomb, shutting down the tomb-top as before. Upon this, the devils being very much exasperated, one night made a noise so dreadful, that the walls shook. They transformed themselves into the shapes of all sorts of beasts, lions, bears, leopards, bulls, serpents, asps, scorpions and wolves; every one of which moved and acted agreeably to the creatures which they represented; the lion roaring and seeming to make towards him, the bull to butt, the serpent to creep, and the wolf to run at him, and so in short all the rest; so that Anthony was tortured and mangled by them so grievously that his bodily pain was greater than before. But he taunted them, and the devils gnashed their teeth. This continued till the roof of his cell opened, a beam of light shot down, the devils became speechless, Anthony's pain ceased, and the roof closed again.

At one time, the devil laid the semblance of a large piece of plate in his way, but Anthony, perceiving the devil in the dish, chid it, and the plate disappeared. At another time he saw a quantity of real gold on the ground, and to show the devil "that he did not value money, he leaped over it as a man in a fright over a fire."

Having secluded himself in an empty castle, some of his acquaintance came often to see him, but in vain; he would not let them enter, and they remained whole days and nights listening to a tumultuous rout of devils bawling and wailing within. He lived in that state for twenty years, never seeing or being seen by any one, till his friends broke open the door, and the spectators were in amazement to see his body, that had been so belaboured by devils, in the same shape in which it was before his retirement. By way of a caution to others, he related the practices of the devils, and how they appeared. He said that, "to scare us, they will represent themselves so

tall as to touch the ceiling, and proportionably broad; they often pretend to sing psalms and cite the scriptures, and sometimes while we are reading they echo what we read; sometimes they stamp, sometimes they laugh, and sometimes they hiss; but when one regards them not, then they weep and lament as vanquished. Once, when they came threatening and surrounding me like soldiers, accoutred and horsed, and again when they filled the place with wild beasts and creeping things, I sung Psalm xix. 8, and they were presently routed. Another time, when they appeared with a light in the dark, and said, "We are come, Anthony, to lend thee our light," I prayed, shutting my eyes, because I disdained to behold their light, and presently their light was put out. After this they came and hissed and danced; but as I prayed, and lay along singing, they presently began to wail and weep as though they were spent.

Once there came a devil very tall in appearance, that dared to say, "What wouldst thou have me bestow upon thee?" but I spat upon him and endeavoured to beat him, and, great as he was, he disappeared with the rest of the devils. Once one of them knocked at the door of my cell, and when I opened it I saw a tall figure, and when I asked him, "Who art thou?" he answered, "I am Satan; Why do the monks blame and curse me? I have no longer a place or a city, and now the desert is filled with monks; let them not curse one to no purpose." I said to him, "Thou art a liar," &c. and he disappeared.

Much more than this he is related to have said by his biographer, who affirms that "having been prevailed upon to go into a vessel and pray with the monks, he, and he only, perceived a wretched and terrible stink; the company said there was some salt fish in the vessel, but he perceived another kind of scent, and while he was speaking, a young man that had a devil, and who had entered before them and hid himself, cried out, and the devil was rebuked by St. Anthony and came out of him, and then they all knew that it was the devil that stunk."—"Wonderful as these things are, there are stranger beings yet; for once as he was going to pray, he was in a rapture, and (which is a paradox) as soon as he stood up, he saw himself without himself, as it were in the air, and some bitter and terrible beings standing by him in the air too, but the angels, his guardians, withstood them."

"He had also another particular favour, for as he was sitting on the mount in a praying posture, and perhaps gruelled with some doubt relating to himself, in the night-time, one called to him, and said, 'Anthony, arise, go forth and look!'

so he went out and saw a certain terrible deformed personage, standing and reaching to the clouds, and winged creatures, and him stretching out his hands; and some of them he saw were stopped by him, and others were flying beyond him; whereupon the tall one gnashed his teeth, and Anthony perceived that it was the enemy of souls, who seizes on those who are accountable to him, but cannot reach those who are not persuadable by him."—His biographer declares that the devils fled at his word, as fast as from a whip.

The Rev. Alban Butler says, "there is extant a sermon of St. Anthony's, wherein he extols the efficacy of the sign of the cross for chasing the devil, and lays down rules for the discernment of spirits." There is reason to believe that he could not read; St. Austin thinks that he did not know the alphabet. He wore his habit to his dying day, neither washing the dirt off his body, nor so much as his feet, unless they were wet by chance when he waded through water on a journey. The Jesuit Ribadeneria affirms, that "all the world relented and bemoaned his death, for afterwards there fell no rain from heaven for three years."

Though two centuries elapsed before Anthony's bones were looked for, his grave was not only discovered, but his body was found in the customary preservation. It was brought to Europe through a miracle. One Joceline, who had neglected a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, was, therefore, sorely wounded in battle, and carried for dead into a chapel dedicated to St. Anthony. When he began to revive, a multitude of devils appeared to drag him to hell, and one devil cast a halter about his neck to strangle him, wherefore St. Anthony appeared; the devils flew from *him* of course, and he commanded Joceline to perform his pilgrimage, and to convey his body from the East; whereupon Joceline obeyed and carried it to France. The saint's beard afterwards was shown at Cologne, with a part of his hand, and another piece of him was shown at Tournay; two of his relics were at Antwerp; a church dedicated to him at Rome was famous for his sackcloth, and part of his palm coat; the other part of it was exhibited at Vienna, and the rest of his body was multiplied about, that there were limb-bones enough for the remains of half a dozen uncanonized persons.

St. Anthony's fire is an inflammatory disease, which, in the eleventh century, raged violently in various parts. According to the legend, the intercession of St. Anthony was prayed for, when it miraculously ceased; and therefore, from that time, the complaint has been called St. Anthony's fire.

St. David, or in Welsh, Dewid, the patron of Wales, was son of Xantus, prince of Cardiganshire, and his birth was prophesied thirty years before it happened; he was brought up a priest, became an ascetic in the March 1st.
St. David
 Isle of Wight, afterwards preached to the Britons, founded twelve monasteries, ate only bread and vegetables, and drank milk and water. A synod being called at Brevy, in Cardiganshire, A. D. 519, in order to suppress the heresy of Pelagius, "St. David confuted and silenced the infernal monster by his learning, eloquence, and miracles." After the synod, St. Dubritius, archbishop of Caerleon, resigned his see to St. David, which see is now called St. David's. He died in 544, St. Kentigern saw his soul borne by angels to heaven; his body was in the church of St. Andrew. In 962, his relics were translated to Glastonbury.

One of the miracles alleged of St. David, by Cressy, is, that at the anti-Pelagian synod he restored a child to life, ordered it to spread a napkin under his feet, and made an oration; that a snow-white dove descended from heaven and sat on his shoulders; and that the ground whereon he stood, rose under him till it became a hill, "on the top of which hill a church was afterwards built, which remains to this day." He assembled a provincial synod to confirm the decrees of Brevy; and wrote the proceedings of both synods for preservation in his own church, and to be sent to other churches of the province; but they were lost by age, negligence, and incursions of pirates, who almost every summer came in long boats from the Orkneys, and wasted the coast of Cambria. He invited St. Kined to this synod, who answered that he had grown crooked, distorted, and too weak for the journey; whereupon ensued "a double miracle," for "St. Kined having been restored to health and straightness by the prayers of St. David, by his own prayers he was reduced again to his former infirmity and crookedness." After this synod, he journeyed to the monastery of Glastonbury, which he had built and consecrated, with intent to repair it, and consecrated it again; whereupon our Lord appearing to him in his sleep, and forbidding him to profane the sacred ceremony before performed, he, in testimony, with his finger pierced a hole in the bishop's hand, which remained open to the view of all men till the end of the next day's mass." Before his death "the angel of the Lord appeared to him, and said to him, prepare thyself." Again: "When the hour of his departure was come, our Lord JESUS CHRIST vouchsafed his presence, to the infinite consolation of our holy father, who at the sight of him exulted." More to

the same purpose is alleged by the Catholic writers respecting him,—such as, that at his death, “being associated to a troop of angels, he with them mounted up to heaven,” and that the event was known “by an angel divulging it.”

According to Porter, St. David was uncle to the famous prince Arthur, or, strictly speaking, half uncle, if St. David's illegitimacy be authentic. The same author relates of him, that on his way from building the church of Glastonbury he went to Bath, cured an infection of the waters, and by his prayers and benediction gave them the perpetual heat they still retain. On the same authority, St. David's posthumous virtue, in the reign of King Stephen, occasioned the brook above the churchyard of St. David's church to run wine, by miracle: the well near it, called Pisteldewy or the Conduit of David, sent forth milk instead of water. Also, a boy, that endeavoured to take pigeons from a nest in St. David's church at Lhannons, had his fingers miraculously fastened to the stone, till by his friends' watching, fasting, and praying before the altar three days and nights, the stone fell from his hand. “Manie thousands of other miracles have been wrought by the meritts of this holy man, which for brevities sake we omitt. I only desire all true hearted Welshmen allwaies to honour this their great patrone and protector, and supplicate the Divine Goodness to reduce his sometime beloved countrey out of the blindness of *Protestancie*, groveling in which it languisheth. Not only in Wales, but all England over, is most famous in the memorie of St. David. But in these our unhappie daies the greatest part of his solemnities consisteth in wearing of a greene leeke, and it is a sufficient theme for a zealous Welshman to ground a quarrell against him, that doeth not honour his capp with the like ornament that day.”

The feast of this saint is celebrated in the church of Miner-March 7th. va, where the cardinals assist solemnly at mass; St. Thomas and in St. Barbara's feast of the booksellers, who Aquinas. have taken St. Thomas Aquinas for their patron.

It is related in the Golden Legend, that a man who was thought to be starved to death, and by a rope cast about his neck, was drawn to the top of a tower, and thrown down from thence, when he came to the ground rose up upon his feet, and gave the following account to those who wondered at his being alive, since he had continued so long without sustenance, and how it was possible for him to be preserved in his fall; he assured them, that St. Barbara preserved him in all his dangers, and in his fall from the tower sustained him with her holy hands.

do it all over again, which he did, without asking for a morsel of bread, though he had been seven days without eating; this was to try Paul's obedience. Another day when some monks came to Anthony for advice, he bid Paul spill a vessel of honey and gather it up without any dust; this was another trial of his obedience. At other times he ordered him to draw water a whole day and pour it out again; to make baskets and pull them to pieces; to sew and unsew garments, and the like: these were other trials of his obedience. When Anthony had thus exercised him, he placed him in a cell three miles from his own, proposed him as a model of obedience to his disciples, sent sick persons to him, and others possessed with the devil, whom he could not cure himself.

The feast of St. Gregory, surnamed the Great, is held in St. Peter's, where his body is deposited. He was prætor of

March 12th. Rome in 574, under the Emperor Justin; next St. Gregory year he became a monk, and by fasting and study the Pope.

became so weak, that he swooned if he did not frequently eat. What gave him the greatest affliction was, his not being able to fast on Easter-eve; a day on which, says St. John the Deacon, every one, not even excepting little children, are used to fast; whereupon, by praying that he might be enabled to fast, he not only fasted, but quite forgot his illness. He determined to proceed to Britain to propagate the faith; but the whole city rose in an uproar to prevent his departure, and the pope constrained him to remain.

Pope Pelagius II. afterwards sent him as nuncio to Constantinople, where Eutychius fell into an error, importing that, after the resurrection, *glorified bodies would not be palpable*, but of a more subtile texture than air. St. Gregory clearly demonstrated that such bodies would be the same which they had on earth, and Eutychius retracted his error.

On his return to Rome, he took with him an arm of St. Andrew, and the head of St. Luke. Pelagius made him his secretary, after whose death, he was elected pope himself.

To escape from the danger of this elevation, Gregory got himself carried out of Rome in a wicker basket, and lay concealed in the woods and caverns for three days. He was afterwards consecrated with great pomp, and on that occasion sent a synodal epistle to the other patriarchs, wherein he declared that "he received the four councils as the four gospels." Butler says, he extended his charity to the heretics, and "to the very Jews;" yet he afterwards adds, that in Africa, "he extirpated the Donatists." He subscribed himself in his letters, *Servant of the Servants of God.* He sent to the Empress

Constantina a veil which had touched the relics of the apostles, and assured her that miracles had been wrought by such relics, and promised her some dust-filings of the chains of St. Paul. He likewise sent to St. Austin and other monks to convert the English.

He died on the 25th of January, 604. His devotion to the church was constant; he was learned, enterprising, sincere, and credulous; and, for the times wherein he lived, charitable and merciful. He was the author of the church-singing, called the Gregorian chant.

Many miracles are related of St. Gregory; as, that going to bless a church in honour of St. Agnes, which had been used by the Arians, he caused the relics to be placed on the altar, whereon a hog went grunting out of the church with a fearful noise; whence it was averred, that the devil, who had been served in it by the heretic Arians, was driven out by the relics. Sometimes the lamps were miraculously lighted. One day a bright cloud descended on the altar, with a heavenly odour, so that from reverence no one dared to enter the church.

At another time, when Gregory was transubstantiating the wafers, a woman laughed; he asked her why she laughed? to which at length she answered, "because you call the bread which I made with my own hands the body of our Lord;" whereupon he prayed, and the consecrated bread appeared flesh to every one present; and the woman was converted, and the rest were confirmed.

At another time, some ambassadors coming to Rome for relics, Gregory took a linen cloth which had been applied to the body of a saint, and inclosing it in a box, gave it to them. While on their journey home, they were curious to see the contents of the box; and finding nothing within it but the cloth, returned to St. Gregory complaining that he had deceived them. On this, he took the cloth, laid it on the altar, prayed, pricked it with a knife, the cloth shed blood, and the astonished ambassadors reverently took back the box.

Another time, one who had been excommunicated by St. Gregory for having put away his lawful wife, bargained with certain sorcerers and witches for revenge; who, when the holy pope rode through the city, sent the devil into his horse, and made him caper, so that he could not be held; then, with the sign of the cross, the pope cast out the devil; and the witches, by miracle becoming blind, were converted, and St. Gregory baptized them; yet he would not restore their sight, lest they should read their magical books again; but he maintained them out of the church-rents.

After his death there was a famine in Rome, and the people being falsely persuaded that St. Gregory had wasted the church property, gathered his writings to burn them; wherefore Peter the Deacon, who had been intimate with Gregory, affirmed, that he had often seen the Holy Ghost in form of a dove upon St. Gregory's head whilst he was writing, and that it would be an insufferable affront to burn those books, which had been written by his inspiration; and to assure them of this, he offered to confirm it by oath, but stipulated, that if he died immediately after he had taken the oath, that they should believe that he had told them the truth: this being assented to, he took the oath, and thereupon died, and the people believed; and "hence," says Rabadineira, "the painters came to represent St. Gregory with a dove at his ear, to signify that the Holy Ghost inspired and dictated what he wrote."

It is also related of St. Gregory, that, when he fled from Rome to avoid the dignity of popedom, and lay hidden, a bright pillar of fire descending from heaven, glittered above his head, and angels appeared descending and ascending by the same fiery pillar upon him; wherefore, he was miraculously betrayed.

Lent is said to be an imitation of the fasting of JESUS CHRIST. It must be of great antiquity, since it is cited by several ancient fathers. In the primitive church the Christians did not always fast during the precise term of forty days; for we have examples of Lent-seasons that were of shorter continuance, and of others that lasted longer. It was sometimes usual to begin Lent at Septuagesima, other times at Sexagesima, and often at Quinquagesima. With some, it held six weeks, with others seven, and some again began it but three weeks before Easter. It was kept very strictly, for they used to abstain not only from wine, flesh, meats, and all kinds of luxury, but to fast till the evening. Lastly, all persons were prohibited from marrying during Lent, which custom is observed to this day.

The fast of the ember weeks was borrowed originally from the Jews; for they bear a relation to four fasts which the Jews denominated from the fourth, fifth, seventh, and tenth months. The ember weeks are observed in March, June, September, and December. The humiliation of the ember weeks consists in three days strict fasting in each season of the year. By this fast, the faithful are taught that the four parts of the year are to be equally consecrated to God. Some pretend that these fasts were established as early as the first century of the church, but that they were not absolutely binding; on

the contrary, that a person might transgress them without scandal or offence. It is even said, that this coldness and indifference were not suppressed but in process of time by councils. Others say, that the ember weeks were not instituted till the year 460, by Pope St. Leo. Moreover, that Pope Gelasius commanded that priests and deacons should be ordained in those seasons. As it was customary in the apostolic age, for fasting and public prayer to precede their ordinations, it was but reasonable that the present ember weeks should be distinguished by the same pious exercises, and that the faithful should employ fasting and prayer "to implore such officers of God as might be worthy to serve his church."

The ceremony of giving ashes is one of the ancient methods of expressing sorrow, of which mention is often made in the Old Testament. It is also a type of the public penance used among christians anciently, during which the penitent was cut off from all communication with the rest of the faithful, and stood at the church-door, covered with sackcloth and ashes.

Ceremony of
giving the
Ashes.

The ashes that are made use of on Ash-Wednesday must be made from the branches of olive, or some other trees that have been blessed the foregoing year on Palm Sunday. The sacristan, or vestry-keeper, gets these ashes ready and lays them in a small vessel on the altar, on the epistle-side; after which the officiating priest blesses them, for which purpose the wax-tapers on the altar are lighted. The officiating priest, his clerks, and his acolytes, put on ornaments suitable to the solemnity of the ceremony; during which the choir chant *none*, or the ninth hour; after which, the officiating priest, preceded by the incense-bearer, and other assistants, goes up to the altar, kisses it, and says a prayer with his face a little turned towards the ashes. He afterwards makes the sign of the cross upon the ashes, and incenses them. The incensing being ended, the priest, having on one side of him the deacon carrying the ashes, and his sub-deacon on the other, goes forward towards the middle of the altar, and turns round to the congregation. Then the chief of the clergy in whose church the ceremony of giving the ashes is performed, goes up to the altar, and lays the ashes on the head of the officiating priest in the form of a cross, repeating these words, *Memento homo quia pulvis es &c.*; i. e. *Remember man that thou art dust, &c.* After the priest has received the ashes, he gives them to his assistants, to all the clergy then present, and at last to the whole congregation. The women as well as the men, receive the ashes on their foreheads.

A bishop, with his mitre off, receives the ashes sitting, from the officiating canon; after which the prelate, putting on his mitre, and having a white cloth before him, gives the ashes to the officiating canon, who stoops before him. It is the bishop's province to give the ashes to a churchman of superior dignity, such as an archbishop or patriarch. Princes, ambassadors, and other persons of distinction, receive the ashes after the canons. The canons and the superior clergy incline their bodies when they receive them, but all the inferior clergy and the laity take them kneeling. The pope receives them from the officiating cardinal, who does not repeat the *Memento*, &c. to him; but the cardinal stoops a little when he takes them from the pope. If an emperor were to assist at this ceremony of humiliation, he must take them after all the cardinals; for the princes of the church are superior to all temporal ones.

Pope Urban V. sent, on the fourth Sunday in Lent of the year 1366, a golden rose, to Joan, queen of Sicily, and made

Blessing the Golden Rose. a decree, by which it was ordained, that the popes should consecrate one at that season every year. This golden rose is enriched with precious stones, and is often sent by the pope to princesses, or to some church, as a mark of his peculiar affection. His holiness blesses the rose in the room in which the ornaments are kept, immediately before he goes to hear mass in his own chapel. This blessing is performed with frankincense, holy water, balm, and musk, mixed together. The benediction being ended, the pope goes out of the room, and one of his privy chamberlains carries the rose before him, and lays it on a candlestick. Then a cardinal-deacon presents it to his holiness, who, taking it in his left hand, walks on to the chapel, and with his right hand blesses the faithful who line the way. After this, the rose is returned to the cardinal-deacon, and he gives it to a clerk of the chamber, who lays it on the altar. Mass being ended, his holiness gives the rose to whomsoever he thinks proper. We must not omit that the Sunday of the golden rose is called *Latate*, from a lesson which is read on that day, beginning at verse 10, of the 66th chapter of Isaiah, and that the sacred college come into the chapel clothed in cassocks of the colour of dried roses.

The rose is remarkable for three qualities, which are to be applied to the faithful of the Church, viz. for its colour, its fragrance, and taste. The substance of the golden rose, the musk and the balm with which it is blessed, are so many emblems of the divine, the spiritual, and human nature of JESUS CHRIST.

On Palm-Sunday, palms are prepared at the Pope's Chapel;

and when these cannot be procured, olive-branches are sometimes used, adorned with the leaves of the palm-tree, tied up neatly in the shape of a cross: these palm, or olive-branches, are about five feet in length. The Pope then goes in procession to the chapel; and when the prayers and ceremonies which are used in all other benedictions are ended, his holiness sprinkles and incenses the branches. After their consecration, the chief cardinal-bishop presents two of the largest of them to his holiness, who gives them to two persons of distinction, who, according to the Roman ceremonial, must stand on each side of the pope, with the branches in their hands. The above-mentioned cardinal then presents him a third branch, less than the former; this the pope gives to a chamberlain, and presents the rest to the cardinals, prelates, ambassadors, and noblemen, who assist at the ceremony.

Ceremonies
of Palm Sun-
day.

The branches, which the cardinal-bishop offers to his holiness, are beautifully adorned with flowers, and must be kissed by those to whom they are presented. When the chief cardinal-bishop receives them, he has the honour to kiss the hand and knee of his holiness; the rest of the cardinals also kiss his knee, but the clergy of an inferior order only kiss his foot. The ceremony concludes with distributing the branches among the people; and during the service of the Passion, all the congregation hold their branches in their hands.

On Palm-Sunday, the altars, likewise, are adorned with palm or olive-branches. The branches, designed to be distributed, are laid upon a table near the altar, and remain there covered with a white cloth, till the time of blessing them.

One remarkable custom practised on Palm-Sunday, and which is still observed in several parts of Christendom, is the setting a prisoner at liberty; upon which occasion the bishop and clergy go in procession: the ceremony of this delivery is considered by the Catholics as a type of their spiritual freedom. This ceremony is borrowed from the Jews, who used anciently to set a prisoner at liberty on the day of their pass-over, in commemoration of their deliverance from the Egyptian bondage.

After the palms are distributed, the procession begins by the deacon presenting the officiating priest with one of the branches, which he kisses, as also the priest's hand: this being done, the sub-deacon takes the cross, and takes his station between the two incense-bearers, at the entrance of the sanctuary or chancel. Immediately after, the deacon, having knelt down, and turned himself towards the people, repeats to them,

Procedamus in pace, i. e. *Let us go in peace*; and the procession is then performed round the church. When it is ended, mass is said. During the singing of the passion, the several members of the congregation hold their branches in their hands, not excepting the officiating priest and the ministers of the altar; none being excepted but the deacons, who repeat the service of the passions, and the acolytes, and their attendants. After mass is ended, every member of the congregation carries home his branch which has been blessed; and, according to the rituals, a branch thus blessed, is a preservative from several diseases, and an instrument of innumerable blessings.

After various preliminary ceremonies, the procession sets out, each person with his taper in his hand, in such order that the youngest walks first, and the oldest last.

The Procession of the Host to the Sepulchre. The superior clergy walk immediately after the priest, who marches under a canopy, and carries the host. Being come to the sepulchre, the youngest place themselves near the cross, which is set opposite to the grave, and the oldest place themselves behind them: this being done, they all fall down on their knees, the incense and cross-bearers excepted; and the choir sings and repeats the anthem *Tantum ergo sacramentum*, till the conclusion of the ceremony. The priest now incenses the host, and a deacon takes it up and holds it in his hands, till such time as the priest kneels down before it. This being done, the deacon puts it again in the tabernacle, where the priest incenses it thrice; after which, the deacon locks up the tabernacle, and gives the key of it to the master of the ceremonies. At the return of the procession, all the tapers are put out, with the exception of those of the acolytes, who walk before the cross-bearers. The officiating priest now puts off his white vestments, and puts on purple ones, in order to say the office of the vespers; his attendants do the same; and after the vespers are ended they uncover the altars in the following manner:—

The officiating priest takes from the high altar its coverings, its *Pallia*, and other ornaments; but does not take off the cross and its lights. They even take away the little table, on which the church plate, the carpets, and flowers, usually stand; and they likewise uncover the pulpit and the church-walls; the covering of which the sacristan carries into the vestry. The cross is now covered with a black or purple-coloured veil; the tabernacle is veiled in the same manner, and is left open, being the house of the living God, who has absented himself from it for some time. The cross must now

be placed before the tabernacle. In order to solemnize the passion of our Saviour, a black canopy is then set over the high altar, and the walls of the church are hung with the same colour. The whole of this mournful ceremony is ushered in by certain anthems.

It is stated that the uncovering of the altars represents the ignominious manner in which JESUS CHRIST was stripped of his garments.

After the ceremonies above-mentioned are ended, the pope is carried to the gallery, where the bull *in Cæna Domini* is read; by which his holiness excommunicates, in a solemn manner, all heretics and unrepenting sinners; after which he gives his blessing to all the people there assembled.

During the publication of the bull *in Cæna Domini*, which is given out from the gallery of the blessing, the pope is then clothed in a red chasuble, and a stole of the same colour; and stands in a kind of high pulpit, the better to be seen by the people. The sub-deacon, who stands at the left hand of his holiness, reads the bull, which is in Latin; and the deacon, who stands at his right, reads the same to them in Italian. In the mean time the candles are lighted, and each of them takes one in his hand. When the excommunication is pronounced, the pope and cardinals put out their candles, and throw them among the crowd, after which the black cloth that covered the pulpit is taken away.

Two cardinal-deacons' assistants now publish the plenary indulgence, one in Latin, the other in Italian.

After this his holiness washes the feet of twelve priests in the ducal hall, and entertains them at dinner in another apartment, himself waiting upon them; and presents to each of them two medals, the one of gold, the other of silver, as also an apostolical garment, made of white serge.

This ceremony is considered typical of JESUS CHRIST washing the feet of his disciples, and is held in high veneration by the rigid Roman Catholic. A modern writer thus describes the ceremony:—

Ceremony
of washing the
feet of the
poor.

The pope and cardinals having come into the ducal hall, the cardinal-deacons assistants clothe his holiness with his purple stole, his red cope, and plain mitre. Their eminences are clothed in purple copes. His holiness having put three spoonfuls of odoriferous spices into the thurible, gives his blessing to the cardinal-deacon, who is to sing the gospel, which begins *Ante diem festum Paschæ*; after this, one of the apostolical sub-deacons gives the pope a book of the New Testament

to kiss; and the cardinal-deacon incenses him thrice; immediately after which, a chorus of musicians sing the 34th verse of the 13th chapter of St. John, in which are these words, *Mandatum novum do vobis*: "A new commandment I give unto you."

As soon as the pope hears these words sung, he takes off his cope, and putting on a white apron, washes the feet of thirteen poor priests, being strangers, who sit on a high form or bench, clothed in white camelot, with a kind of capouch or cape, that reaches down to the middle of their arms. This, at the pope's court, is called an apostolical garment. The afore-mentioned priests have their right legs bare, and these are well washed over with soap and water, before they are presented to the pope to wash. When he has done, the treasurer, by his order, gives to each of them two medals, one of gold, the other of silver, weighing an ounce each. The major-domo now presents a napkin to the dean of the cardinal college, or one of the most ancient bishops of the apostolic college, who dries their feet. Afterwards, the pope returns to his seat, takes off his apron, washes his hands in water, which a layman of the highest quality, then present, pours out to him, and afterwards wipes them with a napkin, which is presented to him by the chief cardinal bishop. This being done, the pope again puts on his cope and mitre, and sings the Lord's prayer, and several others in Latin; after which he goes into the vestry, where he leaves his pontifical vestments, and withdraws to his apartment, accompanied by the cardinals.

The above ceremony is performed nearly after the same manner in the rest of the churches in Rome, as well as in other places, by the bishops and curates of parishes. The place where the ceremony is performed, must be adorned and perfumed with flowers and odoriferous herbs; and there must be at least one table in form of an altar, neatly covered. The cross must be veiled with white, to denote that purity of which the ceremony of washing the feet is a type; and as every thing must have an allusion to that ceremony, the rituals observe, that the candles which are lighted at this solemn act must be made of the whitest wax. The credence tables, and the basins into which the water is poured, must also be adorned with flowers.

The thirteen priests, whose feet have been washed by the pope, and who are on that day called apostles, are an hour afterwards carried into a beautiful apartment in the Vatican, in which the thirteen priests are entertained with a most splendid dinner. They are no sooner seated, than the pope comes in,

and presents to each of them the first dish, and afterwards pours out to each the first glass of wine; during which he discourses to them with great familiarity, and grants them several privileges.

When the pope has withdrawn, his preacher in ordinary begins a sermon in the above-mentioned apartment, while the thirteen priests are sitting at dinner, in lieu of the spiritual lecture usual at meals in all ecclesiastical societies. The preacher who officiates on this occasion, is the same that generally preaches once a week before the pope in his chamber during Lent and Advent. On this occasion the pope sits in a gallery, unseen by any person, and the cardinals sit round it, clothed in purple copes, as in the consistory. The ceremony ends with a sumptuous entertainment, which his holiness gives to the cardinals; and the whole is heightened with a fine concert of music. It is thus that Rome beholds annually renewed the image of the Lord's Supper with his apostles.

At Rome, the Holy Oils are blessed on holy Thursday, at which time those of the preceding year are burnt. The ceremony is performed with great solemnity, after having first reconciled the penitents to the Church. Blessing of the Oils. After none, or the ninth hour, the officiating priest clothes himself in white, and puts on his sandals, &c. The canons, the several ministers of the altar, seven deacons, seven sub-deacons, and twelve priests, are likewise clothed in white, and all walk in procession to the altar. Omitting the various genuflexions, prayers, and anthems, which follow the procession, we shall only observe, that the officiating priest blesses, consecrates, and exorcises, three sorts of oil. He first performs the ceremony on that of the infirm, or on that which is used in extreme unction, exorcisms, &c.; afterwards on that of the chrism; and, lastly, on that of the catechumens; and the whole is closed with a salutation, which the officiating priest and the ministers who assist at the consecration make to these sanctified oils, saying, *Ave sanctum oleum,—Hail, holy oil, &c.* After this, the new-made oils are carried in procession into the sacristy, where the officiating priest washes his hands, then sings mass, and gives the blessing.

Good Friday is distinguished in various places by ceremonies of great splendour, of which the following may serve as examples: Good Friday.

At Courtray, there is a commemorative procession, on Good-Friday, of our Saviour to Mount Calvary. The city magistrates give five and twenty livres to a poor man, who represents the suffering Saviour; and the monks assure him of

certain salvation, in case he happen to die under the blows that are given him in this ceremony. The procession first assembles in the parish-church, and the mock saviour is brought into the sacristy, where he is clothed with a purple robe, his loins girded with a thick rope, and his head crowned with thorns; after which he is made to walk bare-foot, with a kind of pack-saddle bound around his neck. On each side of this collar, six ropes are put, which are to be fastened to a wooden cross of great weight, which the voluntary martyr has now laid upon his shoulders; and thus equipped, he rambles up and down the whole city. Six Capuchins, who walk at his right hand, draw the six ropes which are fixed on that side of the pack-saddle; and the other six are drawn by as many Recollets, or Franciscans; so that the poor fellow is so dragged and hauled by the twelve friars, that he is continually stumbling, and is almost pulled to pieces. This poor mock saviour would have a terrible ordeal to go through, were it not for a sham Simon the Cyrenian, who, very luckily, comes just in time to free him from his torments. The poor wretch, before he gets into the church is half killed; however, notwithstanding the kicks and buffetings which the people and the mimic Jews bestow upon him, he is so thoroughly persuaded of the merits of his sufferings, and that they will procure him an eternity of bliss, that he bears all his torments without the least murmur or complaint.

The procession at Brussels, in which the crucifixion of our Saviour is represented, is no less extraordinary in its circumstances. Both the city and the court endeavour to do honour to this solemnity; and it is performed in the church of the Austin-friars, at the foot of the altar. The persons who form the procession assemble, in St. Gudila's, the cathedral church, by eight in the morning, and the brotherhood of *Mercy* come thither in their proper habits, bare-footed, and their faces masked; some walking with drums covered with black cloth. After the brotherhood, a great number of prisoners come forward, each of whom drags after him an iron cannon ball, chained to his foot; next come several Austin friars, dressed in Jewish habits, in the midst of whom is a man, who is always a criminal, (but pardoned for the part he then acts,) bound and fettered, crowned with thorns, and dressed in a purple robe. Then several trumpets come forward, and after them the prebends, the priests, and a multitude of people. In this equipage they all crowd into the church, where the concourse is generally so great, that the multitudes are obliged to stand without.



Confession. p. 368.



Extreme unction. p. 370.

In the church a large scaffold is erected, and a cross, twenty feet in height, is set upon it: the person who represents the crucified Saviour, ascends this scaffold, and is followed by those who represent the Jews, with hammers, nails, and ropes in their hands. The Brotherhood of Mercy crowd round the scaffold, and the ladies have high seats prepared for them; the common people standing below in the pit. The mock Jews now strip the pretended CHRIST of his ornaments, lay him along the scaffold, and cast dice for his garments; which being done, they strip him to his shirt. Lastly, he is fixed on the cross, by tying his hands and feet with leathern thongs which are nailed to the cross; and the better to imitate our Saviour's sufferings, they put little bladders, filled with blood, under the thongs, which being pierced by the nails, the blood is seen to trickle from his hands and feet! This is the very *pathos* of this pious farce; for at the sight of the blood, the hearts of the people are moved, and the most devout beat their breasts, while the monks sing anthems suitable to the occasion.

At Venice, on Good-Friday, the holy sacrament is carried in procession, about nine or ten at night, with the utmost solemnity: it is laid in a coffin, covered with black velvet, and in this manner is carried round the square of St. Mark. At Venice.

St. Didier informs us, "That there cannot be a finer sight than this square then affords. Two large flambeaux of white wax are set at each window of the palace Della Procuratia, which goes round the square. This double range of flambeaux, and those which are set over the church gate, are to light the several processions of the fraternities, and the neighbouring parishes, who go into the square. Here the penitents appear in masquerade, and beat themselves till the blood follows the blows. For this purpose they have scourges made of a great number of little sharp cords, which they hold with both their hands, and dipped in a pot filled with vinegar. They strike themselves on the back with so much order, and in such exact cadence, that they must necessarily have studied the art very much, to be so very expert in it.

Here follows the order which is observed in this procession. There are three or four hundred men, all of them holding thick torches of white wax, six feet long, and weighing at least twelve or fifteen pounds each. These walk two and two, with a like number of persons, each holding a lantern, and walking between the torches in such a manner, that the spectator sees alternately a flambeau and a lantern. They are all clothed in black or white serge, according to their fraternities, having

a large cowl, two feet in length, and terminating in a point, which hangs down on their backs. Their lanterns are very large, and are fixed to the end of sticks; each has several tapers in it, which gives a great light, the lanterns being made of very clear glass. As there are a great number of glass houses in and about Venice, some of them are made in a very odd shape, and are so heavy, that one man is hardly able to carry them. Some are made in the shape of stars, or like suns, with a great number of rays darting from them, and are six feet in diameter. The glasses are fixed in with pieces of iron and lead, gilt: others are made in the shape of roses, full and half moons, comets, pyramids, crosses, globes, eagles with extended wings, &c. In the midst of these flambeaux and lanterns the standard is placed, and afterwards the cross, with a crucifix four feet high, covered with crape; and a nosegay at the foot of it, as broad as a half bushel. The several fraternities strive to rival each other in the singularity and beauty of their flowers, as well as in the form they give to their nosegays. The *Battuti* walk before the cross, scourging themselves by starts, and walking backwards, having their eyes always fixed on the crucified Saviour. After the cross the relics follow, carried on litters covered with flowers and tapers. On both sides of the cross, several persons walk with long flambeaux in their hands, and large silver candlesticks, with several candles in them, fixed on a long pole. Afterwards, a chorus of voices is heard, and the clergy follow; then come the guardian, the deputy-guardian, and all the brethren of the fraternity, each having a torch in his hand.

The ceremony of the adoration of the cross is also performed on Good-Friday. After none, the officiating priest goes

Adoration of the Cross. up to the altar, preceded by the acolytes, without tapers, and the rest of the ministers of the altar: they first kneel before it, and bow to the cross, a duty at all times necessary, but particularly on this day. Immediately after the officiating priest and his ministers have repeated on their knees certain prayers in a low tone, the acolytes cover the table of the altar, and lay the mass-book on a black cushion, on the epistle-side. This done, the master of the ceremonies makes a signal to the officiating priest and his ministers to rise up; then the acolytes take away the cushions that were knelt upon, and the black cloth, while the choir and the congregation say their prayers upon their knees. The minister who is to officiate now goes up to the altar, kisses it as usual, and afterwards either repeats, or sings with a low voice, the several lessons of the day, which his minis-

ters repeat after him. Prayers being ended, the officiating priest goes to the epistle-side, the deacon takes the cross, which is veiled, from the altar, and presents it to the officiating priest, who after he has uncovered the top of the cross, elevates it with both hands, at the same time singing these words,—*Ecce lignum crucis*,—*Behold the wood of the cross*. Then all the congregation rise up with their heads bare, and the ministers of the altar sing as follows: *In quo salus mundi pependit*,—*On which the Saviour of the world was extended*. The choir answers; *Venite et adoremus*,—*Let us come and adore*. Here, every one falls upon his knees, the officiating priest excepted. A moment after, they all rise up; the officiating priest uncovers the right arm of the crucifix, and the head of Jesus; shows it, elevates it, and says, *Ecce lignum*, &c. but louder than before. Lastly, he goes up towards the middle of the altar, turns towards the congregation, and with a very loud voice repeats the same words, at the same time elevating the crucifix, and showing it quite uncovered.

The acolytes now spread a purple piece of cloth, or carpet, in the midst of the chancel, and before the steps of the altar. A purple cushion, and a silken veil embroidered with gold, are laid upon the altar. The officiating priest carries the cross thither, and kneeling down, lays it on the cushion, and bows to it. Preceded by his ministers, who attend upon him at this august ceremony, he now returns to his place, where he puts off his sandals and his mitre. He afterwards advances towards the cross, in the midst of his ministers, who are likewise without shoes or sandals; kneels down thrice, repeats thrice a short prayer, and at last kisses the holy wood, which the ministers do likewise. After this, having bowed to the cross, they all return and put on their sandals.

The rest of the dignitaries of the church, each in his rank, now perform the same ceremony, and also the people. In those countries where the women do not sit with the men, a priest having a black stole over his surplice, goes and presents them the crucifix to kiss and adore.

The same ceremonies are performed at the pope's chapel. After his holiness has kissed the crucifix, he makes an offering of twenty-five ducats of gold at least, which he puts into a vessel of the same metal, laid near the left arm of the crucifix. After the cardinals, emperors, and kings go and worship the cross.

The ceremony of the adoration being ended, the deacon salutes the cross, elevates it, and in this posture carries it to the altar, where he places it, observing to bow the knee before it.

As he walks along, the officiating priest stands up while it passes before him; but the rest of the ministers of the altar remain upon their knees.

The ceremonies on Easter eve are at St. John's de Lateran; where, after the blessing of the fire and water, the catechu-

Easter Eve. mens who are of age, are baptized in the *Baptisterium* of Constantine; the Pope assists solemnly at the office in the Apostolical chapel, and a cardinal priest sings mass.

On Easter-eve, the ornaments of the churches and altars are changed; the black, with which the latter were covered, is taken off, and white put on; the tabernacle is also uncovered, and covered with white, but so, that the purple still appears on the outward side, till the Litanies are ended. In like manner, after that part of the service has been celebrated, a carpet, or some rich covering, is laid on the steps of the altar, and the images are unveiled. Then six large tapers are got ready for solemn mass, and likewise all the lights which are to burn before the altar.

On the gospel-side of the altar, a great candlestick is placed, which must be made in the shape of an angel, if possible, and very neatly wrought. In this candlestick, the paschal candle is fixed; it must be made of the whitest wax, and weigh about eight or ten pounds; five holes are made in it, in the shape of a cross, to be filled with five grains of frankincense, gilt over, and made in the shape of a pine-apple. To conclude, some edifying subject is painted on the taper, such as the patron of the place, or any other saint. As every thing must correspond with the solemnity of the day, the ritual ordains, that the reed with which the tapers are lighted, shall also be gilt and adorned with flowers. The three small candles which are fixed to the top of the reed, represent the Trinity in Unity, and must therefore join together at the basis, *i. e.* at the end which touches the reed.

It is ordained by the rituals, that baptism is not to be administered for a week before Easter-eve, unless a child's life be in danger. On this eve is likewise performed the ceremony of blessing the new fire.

The church being strewed with flowers, at the ninth hour the old fire is put out, and at the same time an acolyte must light the new one on the outside of the church.

The officiating priest, dressed in his sacerdotal vestments, and attended by the ministers of the altar and the clergy, now walks out of the church in procession, and goes to the place where the blessing of the fire is to be performed. The holy

water-pot is carried thither in great pomp, as also the frankincense, the sub-deacon's purple maniple, and the mass-book. The sub-deacon walks singly with the cross, and is followed by the clergy. When every one has taken his place, the officiating priest uncovers himself, and pronounces these words: *Dominus vobiscum*,—*The Lord be with you, &c.* as usual. He afterwards repeats the prayer, *Deus qui filium tuum, &c.*, in the midst of which he makes the sign of the cross over the fire; he likewise blesses the five grains of frankincense, which are put on a plate, which an acolyte holds lifted up to his breast. In the mean time, the thuriferary puts some coals, after being blessed, into the thurible, into which the officiating priest throws some frankincense and blesses it; then the deacon gives him the sprinkler, kissing it at the same time. The officiating priest then sprinkles thrice with holy water, the fire which he had just before blessed, and as he is sprinkling, says these words, *Asperges me Domine*. He incenses the sacred fire thrice, in the manner above-mentioned. Then one of the acolytes, or a sacristan, takes a small candle, and lights it at the new fire.

Having gone in procession to the place where the ceremony was performed, they return from it in the same order; but the deacon first puts off his purple ornaments, and puts on white, whereas the sub-deacon takes a purple maniple. The only particular circumstance in the procession is, that the deacon walks in it with the above-mentioned reed in his hand, and the sub-deacon has a small candle shut up in a lantern. The procession having arrived at the church-door, makes a halt, when the deacon kisses the reed, and the acolyte lights one of the candles fixed upon the reed with that which is in the lantern. Then they all fall upon their knees, and the deacon elevates the reed, and sings the anthem, which begins as follows; *Lumen Christi, &c.* i. e. *The light of Christ*. He lights a second candle in the middle of the Church, with the same solemnity; and the third is lighted on the steps of the altar. There they must perform certain acts of devotion, or rather ceremonies, one of which is *The Blessing of the Paschal Candle*. The deacon having asked the officiating priest's blessing, goes to the desk, on which he lays the mass-book, and incenses it thrice, but neither signs himself nor the mass-book with the sign of the cross. The rest of the ministers range themselves round the mass-book in the manner following:—The cross-bearer stands with the cross turned towards the officiating priest; the thuriferary is at the deacon's right hand; the other acolyte, who has the reed in his

hand, and he who bears the five grains of incense, are at his left. When the deacon begins to sing the lesson called the *Praconium*, which begins *Exultet, &c.* the officiating priest and his ministers uncover themselves; and in the midst of their chanting, at these words, *Curvat Imperia*, he puts the five grains of incense in the form of a cross, into the taper. Afterwards, at certain words, *Rutilans ignis accendit, &c.* adapted to the mysteries of the ceremony, he lights the paschal taper; and whilst he is chanting, an acolyte lights all the rest of the candles with the new fire.

This ceremony being ended, the deacon returns to the sacristy, where he puts off his white ornaments, and resumes the purple stole and the maniple of the same colour. After the blessing of the tapers, follow the lessons called *Prophecies*; and after them a verse is sung by the choristers, called *Tractus*. Singing of the prayers concludes this ceremony.

It is considered that the blessing of the paschal candle is of great antiquity in the Church, and that Pope Zozimus in the beginning of the fifth century, commanded that one should be lighted in every parish. This candle must remain on the gospel-side from Easter-eve to Ascension-day.

The officiating priest and his ministers now go in procession to *bless the baptismal font*; the cross and taper-bearers go on one side of it, and the minister who officiates stands opposite to them, in such a manner that the font stands between him and the cross.

The other ecclesiastics range themselves on each side; an acolyte stands at a little distance behind the officiating priest, at his right hand, holding a napkin to wipe his hands, and a thuriferary stands next in order to him.

The minister who officiates then uncovers himself, and falls on his knees, with all the others, the cross and taper-bearers excepted. After an anthem is sung suitable to the solemnity, he rises up, and turning towards the font, pronounces the blessing, making the sign of the cross that way. He afterwards exorcises the water, makes a cross in it with his hands, and pours some out of the vessel towards the four cardinal points of the horizon. This done, he wipes his hands with the napkin given him by the acolyte, and repeats a prayer, at the conclusion of which he blows thrice on the water, and in three different places, always observing to do it crossways. He also plunges a taper thrice into the same water, observing to sink it deeper the second time than the first, and the third more than the second, saying at each immersion the following words; *Descendat in hanc plenitudinem fontis virtus Spiritus*

Sancti, i. e. *May the Spirit of the Holy Ghost descend into this water.* The assistants now sprinkle the people with a little of this water, and they also send a priest or a sacristan to sprinkle the houses therewith.

After this ceremony, the officiating minister perfumes the font thrice with frankincense; after which he takes the oil of the catechumens, and pours it on the water cross-ways, and does the same with the chrism. Being poured into the water in equal proportions, and always cross-ways, he afterwards mixes them with his right hand, in order that they may be diffused equally over every part of the font.

The font being blessed, the celebrant goes and receives the catechumens at the church-gate; and clothes himself in white, to perform the ceremony of their baptism.

The litanies are now sung, and a solemn mass and vespers are said. Whilst the litanies are chanting, the host, which till now was hidden, is taken out and brought to the altar; all the tapers are then lighted, the altar is covered with several ornaments, the images are unveiled, and the seat of the officiating priest is covered. The latter, together with his priests, now resume their white ornaments, and prepare themselves for the celebration of a solemn mass. When the officiating minister begins the *Gloria in Excelsis*, all the bells fall a ringing; for which purpose a signal is given from the cathedral.

This procession is singularly imposing, but a minute account of it will altogether exceed the limits of this work. Among others, the procession includes bishops, archbishops, consecrated patriarchs, ambassadors, cardinals, &c. &c. The pope, who comes next after the ambassadors, is carried in a vehicle, in which he seems to be on his knees, though he is really seated. He has on a rich cope, and over it a pall made of cloth of silver, which covers his shoulders and arms like a scarf. Before him is set a wooden stool gilt, with a cushion of red crimson velvet, embroidered with gold lace; on which is laid the expositor, in which the Host is contained, which he bears with his own hands.

Procession
of the Blessed
Sacrament.

The canopy over the pope's head is carried by the patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops, at their first setting out from St. Peter's; and afterwards, at their setting out from the Portico of the Vatican, by the prime nobility of the neighbouring nations, such as the Florentines and the Siennese, who relieve one another till the procession is almost ended; when the Roman conservators, and the prior of the captains of the several districts, take it and carry it into church.

The Swiss, who go on each side of the Pope, are cased in iron from head to foot, each man carrying a great two-handed sword unsheathed in his hand. After this guard of cuirassiers, the prelates advance in their several ranks, viz. the apostolical prothonotaries, the auditors, the clerks of the chamber, the generals of the orders, the referendaries, or officers in chancery, of the signature of grants, and of justice; and, lastly, the several companies of light-horse, four in rank, and the horses covered with very rich trappings. These close the march.

Sometimes his holiness walks on foot in this procession, in order to set an example of greater respect and veneration for the holy sacrament, which he carries in his hands. Urban VIII., and some other popes, formerly carried it on horseback.

When the consecrated Host is not carried by his holiness, the dean of the sacred college, or the eldest cardinal, bears it instead of him, but is on foot. And on these occasions, the princes and ambassadors do not assist at it.

The procession generally lasts about four hours, although it has not above a mile to go; but then they walk with the utmost gravity, and extremely slow. While the procession continues, the Castle of St. Angelo makes a triple discharge of all its artillery. The *first* salvo is made when his holiness goes out of the chapel Paulina, and takes in his hand the expositor, in which the Host is contained. The great culverine of St. Peter's is then fired off to give the signal. The *second* salvo is made when the pope goes out from the portico of the great square, before the Apostolical Palace; and the *third* when he enters into that of St. James. The pope's guards are all under arms during the procession, and two of the light-horse are posted, with their lances couched, at the corner of every street through which the procession passes, to preserve order.

During the procession of the Blessed Sacrament, the bells of the cathedral, and of the other churches before which it passes, are rung. The streets must be swept, and strewed with flowers and green leaves, and the outsides of the houses and churches must be hung with tapestry. In some parts of Italy, triumphal arches are raised, adorned with emblems and mottoes, in honour of the blessed sacrament. The custom of laying carpets in the streets through which the procession is to pass, was observed by the ancient Romans on these occasions. They likewise had repository altars, as is now the custom, erected in the streets, for their processions to make a halt at.

The officiating priest consecrates two large hosts, one of which is to be used in the procession. Mass being ended, the

tapers are distributed, and a sub-deacon, clothed in vestments suitable to the festival, comes out of the sacristy, preceded by two incense-bearers in surplices, with the thurible in one hand and the navicula in the other. The two incense-bearers join the sub-deacon, and stand by him on the outside of the chancel of the altar, till the march begins. Six clerks in surplices, with lighted torches in their hands, now range themselves on each side of the foot of the altar; and those who are to carry the canopy set themselves at the entrance of the chancel.

The last Gospel being read, the officiating priest makes his genuflexions, having the deacon and sub-deacon on each side of him, and afterwards goes to the epistle side; then descends to the bottom of the steps, takes off his maniple and chasuble, and puts on a white cope. The deacon and sub-deacon also put off their maniples, and then they all three go and make a genuflexion on both knees, bending their bodies very low in the middle of the last step of the altar, where they continue a little time in prayer; after which the deacon rises up, and makes another genuflexion; and this is in order to uncover the expositor, and place it on the corporal, or piece of fine linen used at mass. Here follows a third genuflexion; and then he comes back, and stands near the officiating priest, who rises up, and withdraws a little towards the gospel-side; and after having thrice put incense into each thurible, he falls down upon his knees, with the deacon, who is at his right-hand, and the sub-deacon at the left. The former gives the thurible to the officiating priest, who incenses the blessed sacrament thrice, making a low bow both before and after. This triple incensing being over, the sub-deacon spreads the veil over the shoulders of the officiating priest, while the deacon goes up to the altar, takes the expositor from thence, which he gives to the officiating priest, and afterwards covers his hands with the extremities of the veil that lies over his shoulders; after which, the officiating priest, having the pix, or expositor, in his hands, turns about to the right, and his ministers after him, when they all three continue on one of the steps of the altar, till such time as the whole procession has wheeled off, and they begin the *Pange Lingua*.

As the cross is carried before the pope whenever he appears in public at Rome, so the host goes before him when he is upon a journey; for the sovereign pontiffs have appropriated to themselves, alone, the privilege of having the host carried before them whenever they travel. Several instances of the host going before the pope are recorded, but nothing can

Manner of
carrying the
Host before
the Pope on a
journey.

enter into comparison with the pomp with which it was carried into Ferrara, in 1598, when Clement VIII. went to take possession of that city after the death of Alphonso of Este. The host was carried in procession out of Rome, in a magnificent tabernacle, which was carried by eight canons of the Vatican upon a kind of litter, and under a magnificent canopy embroidered with gold, silk, &c. The brotherhood of the Blessed Sacrament, with each a torch in his hand, walked before the host. The religious orders, the musicians of St. Peter's chapel, and the clergy, with our Saviour's cross carried before them, followed the brotherhood. Afterwards, the Host appeared under the canopy, carried by eight of the private chamberlains of his holiness, and guarded by a body of Swiss, and other soldiers. After the host, his holiness appeared, with a torch in hand; and next to him the sacred college, the prelates, and the Roman nobility, all of them holding tapers in their hands; and followed by a body of troops. In this manner, the host was transported out of Rome.

It was carried to Ferrara, on the back of a beautiful horse, which was adorned with the most gaudy trappings. His holiness, before he began the march, bent his knee before the host, and did not rise up till it was out of sight. The mules employed to carry the baggage, and the lacqueys of his holiness, carrying his arms, marched at the head; these were reinforced by several companies of soldiers, with their trumpets sounding as they marched. After this, eight led horses came forward, and they were followed by the domestics of the cardinals and prelates, all of them on horseback.

Next came two couriers belonging to the Apostolic See, the band of music of the pope's chapel, two esquires, two macebearers, followed by the master of the ceremonies, and the two clerks of the pontifical chapel. Each of the latter carried a lantern, fixed at the end of a lance, in order to light the host, which followed immediately after. Two of the grooms of his holiness held the reins of the horse on which he rode, and the host was guarded by a body of armed Swiss. Afterwards came the sacristan, with his white staff in his hand, the badge of his office, and followed by a great number of Roman prelates.

After these, another band of musicians, and a company of lacqueys belonging to the baggage, appeared, and five hundred horsemen, in very magnificent habits, divided likewise into companies. The barber, tailor, and shoemaker of his holiness, joined in the procession, according to their rank. Four chamberlains followed them, carrying four pontifical

caps, made of purple, at the end of four pikes. All the nobility of Rome and of Ferrara assisted also in this procession, dressed in a very sumptuous manner, and after these came the acolytes, the chiefs of the apostolical chamber, the auditors of the rota, the sub-deacons, the orators, the bishop of Ferrara with his clergy, his holiness's key-bearers, his chief master of the ceremonies, his cross-bearer, twenty clerks of the cathedral of Ferrara, each having a lighted torch in his hand.

The host, when the procession departed from Rome, and during the whole journey, was carried along with the baggage; but at the entrance into Ferrara it was placed in the centre of the procession.—The pope's chief-treasurer had bags fixed on each side of his saddle, out of which he threw money to the people. After the treasurer, came thirty youths of the highest quality in Ferrara, walking on foot, bare-headed, dressed in cloth of silver, with little black cloaks, embroidered with silk, and caps in their hands, enriched with golden roses, pearls, and precious stones. After this shining troop, came Pope Clement himself, clothed in a robe of very rich silk, and having on his head a crown enriched with jewels of immense value. He was carried on the shoulders of eight tall lacqueys, clothed in long scarlet robes, under a canopy of the finest crimson velvet, embroidered with gold, surrounded with a double range of guards very richly dressed, and followed by his Swiss, and an auditor of the *rota*, who carried his triple crown after him, having on each side of him the great chamberlain and the chief butler. A great number of coaches and horsemen followed.

During the whole march, the faithful sung anthems and *moteis*, repeated prayers, made signs of the cross, and gave and received blessings. In a word, they practised all the exterior tokens of devotion. They marched very slowly, and the clergy both secular and regular, in all the places through which the procession passed in the night-time, advanced to meet them, with a body of the militia at their head. After the clergy came the magistrates and other persons of distinction; and at the entrance into the city, the trumpets sounded, and the air echoed with spiritual songs, whilst the people crowded from all parts to come and adore the Host. People of the highest rank, at the same time, strove who should first present his holiness with the canopy.

On Christmas-eve, before the office of the ensuing festival begins, the sovereign pontiff annually *blesses a gold-hilted sword*, inlaid with precious stones, wrought in the form of a dove; with the scabbard and belt enriched in like manner, and

Blessing of the sword and of the Ducal hat fixed on its point. a *Ducal hat* fixed on the point of it. This hat is made of purple-coloured silk, furred with ermine and surrounded with a hat-band, made in the form of a crown adorned with jewels, the hat and sword are both sent by his holiness to some potentate, for whom he has a peculiar affection, or to a great general, who may have merited such a distinction for his bravery, exerted against the enemies of Christianity. His holiness performs the ceremony of blessing them, clothed with the albe, the amict, and the stole, before he puts on the red cope, which he wears at the office of Christmas-night. A clerk of the chamber presents to him the sword, and the hat fixed on the point of it; and after having pronounced the blessing, he sprinkles and incenses them both with holy-water. This being done, the pope goes to his chapel, preceded by the same clerk of the chamber, who walks with the sword and the hat before the pontifical cross. If the person for whom these presents are designed happens to be at Rome, he must receive them from the pope's own hand, observing to kiss both that and his foot. His holiness declares to him that the sword denotes the power of our Saviour, and the victory which he has gained over the devil. Whilst the sword is girding on, his holiness addresses the person so honoured as follows:—"By this sword we declare you the defender of the Holy Apostolical See, and of the pontifical sovereignty; the protector of the Holy See against the enemies of the faith, and the bulwark of the Church. May your arm, by the virtue of this sword, triumph over the enemies of the Holy See, and of the name of CHRIST JESUS: may the Holy Ghost, represented by the dove, descend on your head, and protect you against those for whom God prepares his judgments, before the Holy Roman Catholic Church, and the Holy See Apostolic," &c. Such is the formula appointed by Sixtus IV. for this ceremony.

Sometimes the person to whom the pope presents the consecrated sword is invited to read one of the lessons of the office; in which case, a clerk of the chamber girds him with the sword over the surplice, clothes him with a white chasuble, and puts the hat upon his head. After this, the master of the ceremonies conducts him to the steps of the throne of his holiness, where he bows to the altar, and then to the pope; and after having returned the consecrated hat to the master of the ceremonies, he draws the consecrated sword out of the scabbard, touches the ground with the point of it, waves it thrice aloft, and after having brought it back gently over the left arm, puts



The Viaticum, p. 365.



Baptism in the Roman Catholic Church. p. 362.

it again into the scabbard. This ceremony being concluded he goes to the desk, and sings the fifth lesson of the office, having first received the pope's blessing. When the singing is finished, he goes and kisses the feet of his holiness; which done, his sacerdotal vestments are taken off, and the hat is again fixed on the point of the sword, which a gentleman holds with the point upwards till the office is ended. If the person for whom the sword is consecrated, should not be present at Rome, or is not able to read, the Romish ceremonial ordains that a clerk of the chamber must put on the surplice, and sing at the desk in his stead; and that afterwards (if present) both of them shall go and kiss the feet of his holiness.

The person to whom the sword has been presented, is then conducted back to his house in pomp, by the nobility of the court of Rome. The sword is carried before him, held aloft, with the hat fixed on the point of it.

SEC. II.—SACRAMENTS OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

THE Roman Catholic Church acknowledges seven sacraments, which number, according to the catechism of the Council of Trent, is established by the scriptures, by the tradition of the fathers, and the authority of councils.

The Seven Sacraments.

These sacraments are accompanied with several solemn and public ceremonies, with which the Church has thought fit to heighten them, notwithstanding they are not an essential part of them, since they can subsist without them; however, they say that it would be a sin to omit them, unless in cases of necessity. Hence it is that the Council of Trent has pronounced anathema against those who say that the ministers of the sacraments may, without sin, despise, or omit, at pleasure, the several ceremonies received in the Church. "We are assured," says the Catechism of the Council of Trent, "that these ceremonies give us a more strict idea of, and, as it were, set before our eyes the effects which result from these sacraments, and imprint the sanctity which attends them more strongly on the minds of the faithful. They raise the minds of such as observe them religiously, to the contemplation of the most exalted things." In a word, we are assured that they excite and increase in us a true faith and spirit of charity.

The sacrament of baptism is defined by the church as one instituted by Jesus Christ, in order to wash away original sin, and all those actual ones which we may have committed; to communicate to mankind the spi-

Baptism.

ritual regeneration and the grace of Jesus Christ; and to unite them as the living members to their head.

The most essential part of the ceremony of baptism in the Catholic church is as follows:—At the church-door the priest first asks the godfather and godmother what child they present to the church? whether or no they are its true godfather and godmother? If they be resolved to live and die in the true Catholic and Apostolic faith? And what name they intend to give it? All profane names, as those of the heathens and their gods, must be rejected; nevertheless, those of Hercules, Hannibal, Achilles, Urania, Diana, &c. are common enough. A Catholic priest is authorized to change the name of a child who had been baptized Abraham, Isaac, or Jacob, by a Protestant minister. After the usual questions have been asked, the priest makes an exhortation to the godfather and godmother, with regard to the devotion which ought to accompany the whole performance. The exhortation being ended, the priest continues the ceremony, and calling the child by the name that is to be given it, asks it as follows; *What dost thou demand of the church?* To which the godfather answers, *Faith*. The priest adds, *What is the fruit of faith?* The godfather answers, *Eternal life*. The priest continues; *If you are desirous of obtaining eternal life, keep God's commandments: Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, &c.* After which he breathes three times upon the child's face, but must observe not to let the child breathe upon him; and at the same time says, *Come out of this child, thou evil spirit, and make room for the Holy Ghost.*

This being done, with the thumb of his right hand he makes a cross on the child's forehead, and afterwards another on its breast, pronouncing these words; *Receive the sign of the cross on thy forehead, and in thine heart, &c.* Whereupon he takes off his cap, repeats a short prayer, and laying his hand gently on the child's head, prays for him a second time. This second prayer being ended, the priest blesses the salt in case it was not blessed before; which being done, he takes a little of it, puts it into the child's mouth, pronouncing these words; *Receive the salt of wisdom.* He then repeats a third prayer; after which he puts on his cap, and exorcises the Prince of Darkness, commanding him to come forth out of him who is going to be baptized, &c. At the end of the exorcism, he again makes the sign of the cross on the child's forehead, lays his hand on its head, and repeats another prayer.

After this fourth prayer, the priest lays the end of the stole

upon the child, and taking hold of his swaddling clothes by one corner, he brings it into the church; the godfather and godmother enter at the same time, and repeat with the priest the Apostle's Creed and the Lord's Prayer as they advance towards the font, which having reached, the priest exorcises the devil once again, and after the exorcism takes the saliva from his mouth, with the thumb of his right hand; with this he rubs the child's ears and nostrils, and as he touches his right ear, repeats a Hebrew word, which signifies *Do thou open*; the same which JESUS CHRIST said to the man who was born deaf and dumb. Lastly, the assistants pull off its swaddling clothes, or at least strip it below the shoulders; during which the priest prepares the holy oils, &c.

The godfather now takes the child, ready stripped, and holds it directly over the font; the godmother then takes it by the feet, or the middle; both observing to turn it towards the east: the priest now asks the child, "Whether he renounces the devil and all his works, the pomps," &c. The godfather answers in the affirmative. This renunciation used formerly to be made on the outside of the church. The priest then anoints the child between the shoulders, in the form of a cross, and after that, lays aside his purple stole, and puts on a white one; when the child is again questioned with respect to his belief, to which the godfather makes suitable answers in his name. These preliminaries being ended, the priest takes some of the baptismal water, which he pours thrice on the child's head in the form of a cross, and as he pours it, says, "I baptize," &c. taking care to mention one of the persons in the Trinity every time he pours it on. This being done, he anoints the top of the child's head with the chrisma, in form of a cross, lays a piece of white linen upon its head, to represent the white garment mentioned in Scripture, and puts a lighted taper into the child's hand, or rather into that of the godfather. Such are the ceremonies of baptism, which the priest concludes with an exhortation; but if the child's life be in danger, these ceremonies are omitted, upon condition that they shall be observed in case he recovers his health; but if he has all the symptoms of death upon him, the midwife baptizes the child without delay.

Adult persons must, if possible, be baptized by the bishop himself; and the most proper time for this ceremony is Easter, or Whitsun-eve, which are the days appointed for baptism by the ancient church. The minister who baptizes, and the candidate for baptism, must both be fasting; but, there is but very little difference between the ceremony of the baptism of

catechumens, and that of children. The priest signs the catechumen several times with the sign of the cross; first on the forehead, which implies that he must take upon himself the cross of CHRIST; on the ears, in order that he may open them to the divine precepts of the gospel; on the eyes, that he may see the light of God; on the nostrils, that he may smell the fragrant odour of CHRIST; on the mouth, that he may utter the words of life; on the breast, that he may believe; on the naked shoulders, to the end that he may bear the yoke of the Lord. These signs of the cross are concluded by three more, which the priest makes over the whole person of the catechumen.

The candidates for confirmation must be fasting, and consequently receive this sacrament in the morning, because it

Confirmation. was at that time of the day the Holy Ghost descended on the apostles. The bishop, before he begins the confirmation, proceeds to his private devotions, washes his hands, and puts on the white vestments; after which, he turns himself about to the candidates, who stand in the same order as at baptism, viz. the boys on the right, and the girls on the left. He next repeats a prayer; which being done, he sits down, and the candidates kneel before him. If the candidates for confirmation are very numerous, the bishop stands up, and the candidates stand on the steps of the chancel of the altar; each being supported under the arm by their godfathers. The bishop now asks the name of each candidate, and has them registered, after which, he dips the thumb of his right hand into the chrism, and therewith makes the sign of the cross upon their foreheads; at the same time giving a gentle blow on the cheek to the person confirmed, and saying "Peace be with you." Immediately after, the forehead of the person confirmed is bound with a slip of linen about the breadth of two fingers; and the bishop says to him, "I confirm you by the chrism of salvation, in the name of the Father," &c. The ceremony ends with the blessing of the persons confirmed, which is done by the bishop, who makes the sign of the cross upon them.

The priest is the sole minister empowered to consecrate the Host, and the rest of the ministers of the church are allowed only to prepare the things necessary for this sacrament; he also has the privilege of communi-

The Eucharist. cating under both kinds, that is, of eating the bread and drinking the wine; whereas, the laity communicate only under one, viz. the bread; and it is said that this custom was introduced in order to prevent certain accidents, which degraded the dignity of the sacrament. One of these was,

the overgrown whiskers and beards of some who received it, which, as they sometimes reached into the cup in which the blood of JESUS CHRIST was contained, might by that means make some good Christians sick at the stomach!

Every Catholic ought to communicate at Christmas, Easter, Whitsuntide, and Twelfth-tide; but every *good* one should, besides the seasons above-mentioned, receive the sacrament on *Corpus Christi*-day, All-Saints, the Assumption of the Blessed Virgin, the festival of his patron, and the anniversary of his baptism. They ought to receive, fasting; and be dressed in such a manner as best suits the Christian simplicity.

The priests who present themselves to the communion, receive the sacrament immediately after the deacon and sub-deacon, before any other person; and these must have a white stole over the surplice. The ministers who serve at the altar, communicate in the habits of their respective orders; but the acolytes and other clerks receive the Eucharist in their surplices. After this, the officiating priest goes down to the rails, in order to administer the sacrament to the laity; observing to begin with the person who stands first on the epistle-side. He makes the sign of the cross with the host on the person that is to receive, observing not to take his hand away till such time as the host is entirely in the mouth of the person receiving. We shall not take notice of the prayers, or other particulars, mentioned in the rituals.

If, in administering the host, or consecrated wafer, the smallest bit of it should happen to fall on the ground, it must be taken up in the most respectful manner, and the place on which it fell must be covered, for fear of treading upon the least particle of it: they must afterwards scrape the floor, and throw the shavings into the sacristy, and wash the place very clean: if it should happen to fall upon the napkin, or the veil, &c. such part of it must be washed, and the water thrown into the sacristy; if it fall on the vestments of the officiating priest, the part must be observed, and afterwards washed.

The blessed sacrament is administered as a *Viaticum*, or provision for a journey, to those whose life is in danger. The sick person must receive it fasting, provided he can do so with safety; and, if he be not able to swallow the whole wafer, a piece of it may be given him, and afterwards some liquid; but the host must not be dipped in any liquid beforehand, on pretence that the sick person will be the better able to swallow it.

In case the sick person throws up the wafer, and that the particles of it plainly appear, they must be put into a clean

vessel, and carried to the church, and there deposited in some holy and decent place, "till such time as they are corrupted, after which they shall be cast into the *Sacrarium*, or *Piscina*; but if the pieces are not to be distinguished, what he has vomited up must be wiped with pieces of tow, and these must afterwards be burnt, and the ashes thrown into the *Sacrarium*." The priest must take care not to give those the viaticum who are troubled with a continual coughing, or are not able to swallow or consume the host, for fear of any accident unsuitable to the dignity of the sacrament.

Whenever the viaticum is to be carried to any place, care must be taken to make the chamber in which the sick person lies, very clean; and also all those parts of the house through which the host is to pass; and they should likewise be strewn with flowers and odoriferous herbs. The host must be laid on a table very neatly covered, on which two candlesticks, with two lighted tapers in them, shall be set; also a drinking glass; a vessel full of wine or water to purify or wash the fingers, and a white cloth to lay before the sick person. In case the viaticum be carried in public, as is the custom in Roman Catholic countries, the rector gives notice to his parishioners by ringing a bell, to prepare themselves to accompany the blessed sacrament with tapers and torches; to support the canopy, or give some other exterior marks of their devotion and respect. Being assembled, the priest washes his hands, as is usual in the celebration of the divine mysteries, and of such ceremonies as are performed by him in blessings, consecrations, &c. He then puts on the surplice, the stole, the chasuble, and goes up to the altar, accompanied or followed by other priests or clerks. Here he falls upon his knees, repeats a private prayer; and afterwards rising up, puts a white scarf about his neck, spreads the corporal on the altar, opens the tabernacle, kneels down a second time at taking out the *ciborium* or *pix*, which he lays upon the corporal; kneels a third time when he has opened it; and after having viewed the host, covers it with its little oval lid, and takes it in both his hands, which are folded in the ends of the scarf, that is about his neck. He then goes under the canopy, and a clerk, with a lighted lantern in his hand, walks foremost; and two other clerks, the one holding the holy water, the corporals, and the purificatories; and the other the ritual and a little bell, march immediately after him. Next come those who carry the torches; and lastly the priest walking under the canopy, and carrying the host raised as high as his breast. If the priest carry the viaticum to a considerable distance, the host

must be put in a little silver box or pix, enclosed in a stuff purse, and hung about his neck.

The priest, on coming into the sick man's apartment, bids peace to the house, and goes towards the table, on which he spreads the corporal, in order to set the pix, or ciborium, upon it. This being done, he, and every person present, worship the host; he then sprinkles the sick person, and also the room; during which anthems are sung and prayers are repeated suitable to the occasion. After this, he opens the ciborium, takes out a consecrated wafer with the thumb and fore-finger of his right-hand, observing to hold it a little aloft over the top of the ciborium, which he holds in his left hand, and turning about, advances towards the sick man, in order to administer the sacrament to him.

The communion being ended, the priest places the ciborium upon the table, observing to make a genuflexion at the same time; and afterwards rubs his finger and thumb, with which he took up the host, upon the brim of the ciborium, so that if any little piece of the wafer should happen to stick to it, he may shake it into it. He afterwards shuts the ciborium, and covers it with a little veil, kneeling at the same time; then he washes the finger and thumb, which touched the host, with wine and water, presented him by those of the house.

This act of devotion concludes with prayers and exhortations. If any consecrated wafers be left in the pix, or ciborium, the priest, after having blessed the sick person, returns to the church, attended by the same persons who accompanied him to the sick man's house. Being come into the church, he pronounces the indulgences granted by the sovereign pontiffs and the bishop of the diocese, and gives them his blessing; but in case there are no more wafers in the pix, the priest returns without any formality, after having repeated the prayers used after the communion of the sick. If the sick person be just expiring, the priest omits all the prayers, &c. and in giving him the viaticum, repeats two or three words only.

When the viaticum is given to a priest, he ought to have a surplice on, and over it a white stole, disposed crosswise over his breast.

If a priest be obliged to carry the viaticum to any person infected with the plague, he must go within nine or ten paces of the house, taking care to stand in such a manner that the wind may be at his back. He now incloses the consecrated wafer between two common ones; and after having wrapped up the whole in a sheet of white paper, lays it on the ground at a reasonable distance from the place infected, and covers it

with a stone, in order to secure it from the wind and rain. This being done, the priest draws back, and the sick person or his attendant, comes and takes up the wafers, being instructed by the priest, which is the consecrated Host. The priest then says the prayers, and performs the ceremonies, which are usually repeated, both before and after the communion.

The like precaution is observed in giving extreme unction to persons infected with the plague. They take a long wand or rod, at the end of which a piece of tow or cotton, dipped in the holy oil, is fixed, with which the sick person is anointed once, and with the usual words. After this, they run the end of the wand and the cotton into a fire purposely prepared in a chafing-dish.

The bishops have power to absolve sinners, throughout the whole extent of their dioceses, and rectors in their parishes.

Confession and Penance. Other priests and monks must have an express approbation from the bishop, before they are allowed to hear confession. However, there are certain cases reserved to the pope, the bishops, and their penitentiaries.

Fasting, prayers, alms, abstinence from such pleasures and things as we chiefly delight in, are the general conditions of penance. There are others of a more particular kind; as, to repeat a certain number of Ave-Maria's, Pater-Nosters, and Credos; to kneel, or salute the host a stated number of times; to give one's-self a certain number of stripes; to wear a hair shirt, or a girdle made of horse-hair, &c. next to the skin. It would be endless, however, to enter into a farther detail of such particulars. Those who cannot hit upon austerities severe enough for their purpose, will meet with sufficient instructions in the Lives of the Saints, and the Golden Legend.

The confessor must have a surplice over his cassock, with a purple stole, and square cap; he must hear confession in the church, and at that part of it which is the most distant from the high altar, i. e. at the bottom of the nave, being the most exposed to the view of the people, in the confessional, or confession-chair, which is the tribunal of penance. The confessional must be open before, and have one or two lattice-windows in it. Opposite to the penitent is placed an image of the crucifix, or some mystery of the passion. Confession must be made in the day-time, and, if possible, when there are people in the church. As soon as the penitent is come up to the confessional, he must make the sign of the cross, and ask the confessor's blessing.

The confessor must then be seated, his body upright, his

cap on his head, his face covered, and his ear stooped towards the penitent. The penitent should be generally kneeling, and his or her hands clasped. Women and young maidens must not come to confession with their breasts bare, or their arms uncovered.

Confession being ended, the confessor uncovers himself, in order to absolve the penitent; and, accordingly, he recommends him to the divine mercy, stretches out his right hand towards him, begging God to remit his sins; after which he puts on his square cap, gives him the absolution in the name of CHRIST JESUS, and adds, holding his right hand always lifted up towards the penitent, that he absolves him, by CHRIST's authority, *in the name of the Father, &c.* He then takes off his cap a second time, and prays to God that "Our Saviour's passion, the merits of the Holy Virgin, and of all the saints, may conspire to remit the penitent's sins."

When the penitent has completed the penance enjoined him, he returns to the bishop or his penitentiary, with a certificate signed by the rector, to prove that he has fulfilled it; after which they proceed to his reconciliation with the Church. This reconciliation was formerly performed on holy Thursday. But whether it happen on this or any other day of public worship, the penitent must come to the church-door, on the day appointed him for receiving absolution. The Roman pontifical enjoins, that he shall be there upon his knees, with an unlighted taper in his hand. He must likewise be in a plain and ordinary dress, without his weapons, if he be a soldier, and bare-headed; in an humble and contrite manner, and with a dejected countenance: women must be veiled. Immediately before the parochial mass, the priest, clothed in his albe, or surplice, and the purple stole, shall give the people notice that the penitent or penitents, are going to be reconciled to the Church. He then shall exhort the congregation to pray for them; shall fall prostrate before the altar, and pronounce some prayers, which are answered by the congregation. These prayers are composed of passages from the scriptures, and selected by the church. The prayers being ended, the priest goes to the church-door, and makes a pretty long exhortation to the penitents; which being done, he takes them by the hand and leads them into the church. But in case they have been excommunicated, he then, before he re-unites them to the body of the faithful, sits down, puts on his cap, and repeats the *Miserere*; the penitent being at his feet, the congregation upon their knees, and the clergy standing. At every verse of the *Miserere*, the priest strikes

the excommunicated penitent on the shoulder, with a little stick, or whip made of chords. The Roman ritual and the pontifical ordain, that the penitent who is absolved in this manner shall be stripped to his shirt, as low as his shoulders. The priest then asks the penitent the occasion of his coming hither, and after that says to him, *Receive the sign of the cross of CHRIST and Christianity, which thou hadst borne before, but renounced by the error into which thou didst unhappily fall.* This ceremony, as all the preceding, must be followed by some prayers; and afterwards the litanies are to be sung, the people being upon their knees.

The rituals define extreme unction to be a sacrament that gives all such Christians as are afflicted with any dangerous fit of sickness, a final remission of their remaining sins, inspires them with grace to suffer with patience the pains and troubles of their infirmity, endues them with strength sufficient to die the death of the righteous, and restores them to health, provided it be for the good of their souls. Thus the Catholic Church makes extreme unction a sacrament, the indispensable necessity of which is apparent in the above definition.

The form of the sacrament of extreme unction consists in these words; "May God by his holy anointing, and his most pious mercy, grant you the pardon of all the sins you may have committed." The priest pronounces this form of words while he is anointing those parts of the body which are proper for it, because they have been the occasion, or served as so many instruments for sin, *whereof*, to use the words of Alet's Ritual, *this sacrament purges the dregs, i. e. those sins which we have not been careful enough to repent of.* This sacrament therefore, *compensates for the defects of past repentance.*

The priest is the only minister of this sacrament, which is administered to none but those who are afflicted with some mortal disease, or those who have arrived at a very advanced age, and are likewise extremely infirm. But extreme unction is not administered to criminals condemned to die; and the reason given for this is, that the criminal is not in a state of death, either by disease or any other infirmity. Extreme unction is likewise refused to those who are impenitent, and in case a sick person dies while he is anointing, the ceremony must immediately be discontinued.

As the dissolution of the sick person approaches, the priest must get ready seven balls of cotton, to wipe those parts which are to be anointed with the holy oil, some crumbs of bread to rub his fingers with, water to wash them, a napkin to wipe

them, and a taper to light him during the ceremony. Before he goes to the sick person, he must sanctify himself by prayer: after which he must wash his hands, put on a surplice, and the purple stole; he must take the vessel in which the holy oils are contained, covered with a purple veil, or shut up in a bag of the same colour, and carry it in such a manner as not to let the oil run out. If he go a great distance off, he need not put on his surplice and his stole till he come to the door of the sick person, and in that case, he must carry the vessel of oils in a purse, and hang it about his neck, in the same manner as the viaticum is sometimes carried to the sick. The priest must be attended by the clerk, who must carry the cross without a staff, the vessel of holy water, the sprinkler, and the ritual. They must not ring the little bell by the way, but the priest must offer up some prayers, with a low voice, in favour of the sick.

On entering into the sick person's apartment, he repeats the ordinary form of words, *Pax huic domui, et omnibus habitantibus in ea*,—i. e. *Peace be to this house, &c.* After having taken off his cap, and set the vessels of the holy oils upon the table, he gives the sick person, the cross to kiss; afterwards takes the sprinkler, sprinkles the sick person, the apartment, and the assistants, with holy water in form of a cross, at the same time repeating the anthem, *Asperges me, &c.* He tells the sick person, by way of exhortation, that he would commit the utmost sacrilege, in case he presumed to receive extreme unction without having first settled his conscience; but in case he is speechless, and is not sensible, the priest exhorts him to the best of his power: which exhortation must certainly have a wonderful efficacy after the sick person has lost his senses. If the sick person discovers any tokens of contrition, the priest shall pronounce absolution, which must be followed by an exhortation, and that, by a prayer. But before absolution, the sick person must either repeat the *Confiteor* himself, or, in case he be not able to do it, the clerk must pronounce it for him. The priest must then add for the sick person the *Misereatur tui*, i. e. *May the Lord have pity on thee, &c.* Before he begins to perform the ceremony of extreme unction, all the persons present must fall down upon their knees, and whilst the anointing is performed, they must repeat the penitential psalms and litanies for the sake of his soul.

The anointing is performed in this manner: the priest dips the thumb of his right hand into the oils of the infirm; he anoints in the form of a cross, and pronounces some words suitable to the anointing of each part; whilst the clerk lights him with a consecrated taper, and holds a basin in a dish, in

which the pieces of cotton are laid. The priest begins by anointing the right eye, observing that the eye-lid is shut; he next anoints the left-eye, and in the mean while repeats these words: *May God by this holy anointing, and by his most pious mercy, pardon you the sins you have committed by the eyes.* If the priest be accompanied by a clergyman who is in holy orders, he must wipe the part which has been anointed, otherwise the priest must wipe it himself. The eyes being anointed he proceeds to the ears, observing to repeat the proper form of words. After the ears, he anoints the nostrils, but not the tip of the nose. He afterwards proceeds to the mouth and anoints the lips, the mouth being shut. He anoints the hands in the manner above-mentioned; then he proceeds to the soles of the feet, and afterwards advances upwards to the reins, but this for *men only*; nor are they anointed in this part, but when they can be easily turned in their beds, or be laid down in them without danger. The anointing being ended, the priest rubs those fingers which have touched the oil, and afterwards washes his hands. The crumbs of bread with which he rubbed his fingers, and the water with which he washed them, must be thrown into the fire. The pieces of cotton that have been employed in anointing, are carried into the church, where they are burnt, and the ashes are thrown into the sacrarium.

The anointing being ended, the priest repeats some prayers, which are followed by an exhortation to the sick; after which the priest goes away, leaving a crucifix with the sick person, in order that the representation of his dying Saviour may administer some consolation to him.

When the sick person has expired, the priest, standing uncovered, says a response, in which the saints and angels are invoked to assist the soul of the deceased: he afterwards repeats a prayer. At the same time orders are sent to toll the bell, to give notice of the sick person's death, by which every one is reminded to pray for his soul.

Ceremonies
observed at
Funerals.

Then the priest withdraws; and the corpse is thus put in order. They wash some parts of it, close its eyes and mouth, according to the ancient practice; and, wrapping it in a shroud, or leaving it with the clothes on, as in Italy, they lay it in a decent place, observing to put a little crucifix in its hands, which must lie upon its breast: sometimes the hands are laid cross-wise. A vessel full of holy water, and a sprinkler, must be placed at its feet, in order that those, who come to pay him their last respects, may sprinkle both themselves and the corpse with holy water. In the meantime some clergyman



Reconciliation of a heretic. p. 369.



Excommunication with unlighted tapers. p. 368.

must stay by the corpse, and pray for the deceased, till such time as he is laid in the earth. If the deceased was a priest, or of any other order in the Church, he must have the tonsure according to his order, and his square cap with a little cross on his breast.

It was anciently the custom, as soon as any person died, to send for some clergyman, who always spent the night with the relations of the deceased, and discoursed with them about the word of God, for their instruction. They used to sing psalms by anthems or verses, the one answering the other. They also recommended the soul of the deceased to God, and besought him to preserve it from hell, &c.

Priests and ecclesiastics, after their decease, are all clothed in habits suitable to their respective ranks; and the corpse of a clergyman is carried to the grave by the clergy only, in the same manner as that of a layman is carried by the laity. Ecclesiastics do not put on mourning for their relations, nor accompany them to the grave in the same order with lay-relations, but walk with the rest of the clergy in their sacerdotal vestments.

Church-yards being the places generally used for the interment of the dead, the bishop blesses them solemnly in the manner following. The eve before the day on which the blessing is to be performed, a wooden cross, of the height of a man, must be set up in the middle of the church-yard, and four smaller ones are to be set up at the corners. Before the cross a piece of wood must be placed, about sixteen inches high, on which wood three tapers are placed, when the blessing is performed. The next morning, before the ceremony begins, a carpet must be spread in the church-yard near the cross; and the several things necessary for the blessing of the place must be got ready; viz. holy water, the thuribles, tapers, &c. Then, the priest being clothed in his sacerdotal vestments, comes out of the sacristy in procession, attended by an exorcist, or acolyte, carrying the holy water; another with the thurible; two clerks, carrying the ritual, and three tapers, made of white wax; and the whole choir, walking two and two, with the officiating priest in the rear.

Ceremony
of Blessing
Church yards.

Having arrived at the church-yard, they range themselves round the cross, or crosses, and the officiating priest makes a short discourse to the assistants, on the holiness, the privileges, and immunities of church-yards. After this, three tapers are lighted up before the cross which stands in the middle; and if there be one at each angle of the church-yard, three are

lighted up before these also. The officiating priest now rises, repeats a prayer, which is followed by the chanting of the litanies; and at the repeating of these words, *We beseech thee to purify and bless this church-yard*, he makes the sign of the cross. He does the same a second time, when he repeats them for the sanctification of the church-yard; and a third, in repeating them for the consecration. The litanies being ended, the officiating priest sprinkles the middle cross with holy water; and whilst an anthem and the *Miserere* are sung, he goes round the church-yard, and sprinkles it with holy water. He afterwards takes one of the lighted tapers, which stood at the foot of the cross, and sets it on the top of it, and then takes the other two, and sets them on the two arms of the cross. At last, the whole ceremony ends with incensing and sprinkling the crosses thrice with holy water.

The common custom among Roman Catholics, is to keep a corpse four and twenty hours above ground; but in some countries, it is kept five or six days, particularly in Holland, where it is often kept seven. The ceremonies ordained by the rituals to those who

Funeral Ceremonies.

are allowed Christian burial, vary in certain circumstances; but in general, when the time is come for the corpse to be carried to church, notice thereof must be given by the tolling of a bell to the priests, and other clergymen, whose province it is to assist at the funeral, to assemble in proper order, clothed in their sacerdotal vestments, in the church where they are to pray. After this, the rector puts his black stole and chasuble over his surplice, and they all set out to the house where the corpse lies; the exorcist carrying the holy water, walks first; next the cross-bearer; afterwards the rest of the clergy; and last of all the officiating priest. The corpse of the deceased must be either laid out at the street-door, or in some apartment near it, with his feet turned towards the street; the coffin being surrounded with four or six lighted tapers of yellow wax, in as many large candlesticks.

When the clergy are come to the house where the corpse lies, the cross-bearer plants himself, if possible, at the head of it; the officiating priest over-against him, at the feet; the person who carries the holy water, a little behind the officiating priest, at his right hand, and the other persons of the choir range themselves on each side, observing to stand nearer or farther off from the officiating priest, in proportion to their rank or superiority in the Church. Every thing must be ordered in this manner, provided there be room for it; for it often happens, that the cross stands at the door, on that side

where the funeral is to go, and that the choir are obliged to range themselves on each side, in order to leave room for the officiating priest in the middle. During this interval, the tapers and torches of yellow wax are lighted, and given to those who are appointed to carry them.

The officiating priest, now standing before the cross, with his face turned towards the body, the assistant who carries the holy water, presents him with the sprinkler, with which the priest sprinkles the corpse thrice, without saying a word.

Then follow certain other ceremonies, after which the corpse is carried to the church where the service for the dead is read, and also mass, if the time will permit.

Prayers now follow, the corpse is again sprinkled, after which it is carried to the grave in the same manner in which it was carried to the church.

Being come to the grave, the whole company pull off their hats, and draw up in much the same order as at church. The bearers lay the corpse near the grave, with its feet turned towards the east, it being affirmed that JESUS CHRIST was buried in that manner. If the corpse be buried in the church, its feet must be turned towards the altar; but those of priests must have their heads turned in a contrary direction.

After the body has been laid on the brink of the grave, the officiating priest blesses it by a prayer, in which he makes the general commemoration of the dead who have been interred therein. The prayer being ended, he again sprinkles and incenses the body, and also the grave thrice. He afterwards begins this anthem, *Ego sum Resurrectio, &c. I am the resurrection and the life, &c.*, and concludes with the *Requiem*. Then the officiating priest performs a third time the triple sprinkling of the corpse with holy water, but does not incense it; which is followed by another prayer, with the anthem, *Si iniquitates*, and the *De profundis*. The body being laid in the grave, the relations and friends of the deceased come, before the earth is thrown into it, and sprinkle it with holy water, in their turns. When the grave has been filled up, the company condole with the relations of the deceased, and they all return to the church, where, after the mass for the deceased is ended, the funeral-sermon is preached.

Sometimes the funeral happens in a season when mass cannot be said; in which case, the ceremony is performed with much greater simplicity; for then the corpse is only sprinkled and incensed by a priest clothed in his black chasuble, and accompanied with two clerks, the one carrying the cross, and the other the sprinkler and the thurible.

Independently of the age requisite for marriage, the liberty of contracting so solemn an engagement, and the publication of the bans, the rituals require further, "That Ceremonies of Marriage. the persons to be joined together in matrimony, shall be sufficiently instructed in the Christian doctrine; that they should know the nature of the sacrament of marriage, its ends, and obligations; and that they should first confess themselves, and receive the sacrament, before they join themselves together for ever."

When the priest in his proper vestments goes to the altar, he is preceded by one or two clerks in their surplices, carrying the holy water-pot, the sprinkler, the ritual, and a little basin, in which to put the ring when it is to be blessed. After he has said the usual prayer for the couple, he advances towards them on the last step of the altar; the man standing on the epistle and the woman on the gospel side, so that the man stands at the woman's right hand. The relations and witnesses stand behind them. Then the priest asks the couple their names and surnames; which is only a formality, their names being already known to him, by the publication of the bans, and by a certificate confirming the same, which the couple are obliged to produce at the time. He afterwards addresses himself to the man and woman separately, in their mother tongue, calling them both by their proper names, and asks the man whether he will have such a one for his wife? and the woman whether she will have such a one for her husband? Reciprocal consent is absolutely requisite in this case, and without it the marriage would be null. After mutual consent has been given, by expressly answering "Yes," the priest, who before was covered, uncovers himself, takes the couple by the hand, and making them join hands, says, *Ego jungo vos in matrimonium, &c.* that is, *I join you together in marriage, in the name of the Father, &c.* At the same time he makes the sign of the cross upon them, and then sprinkles them with holy water. This being done, he blesses the wedding-ring, and sprinkles it also with holy water, in the form of a cross; after which he gives it to the man, who puts it on the wedding-finger of the woman's left hand. This ring is the pledge of the conjugal chastity and fidelity which the wife owes the husband. To all this the priest adds some prayers; after which follows an exhortation to the married couple and to the assembly, and afterwards mass.

The married couple are blessed in the following manner, when the woman is a virgin, and has always had the reputation of chastity. The priest, after the offertory, goes to the



Marriage in the Roman Catholic Church. p. 376.



Blessing of the Nuptial Bed. p. 377.

foot of the altar, and the married couple make what oblation they think proper; the husband first, and the wife afterwards. The priest likewise repeats some prayers, and the ceremony ends with an exhortation to the married couple. The subject of this exhortation is on the duties of the conjugal life, the end and design of marriage, reciprocal love, &c.; after which he sprinkles them with holy water. Young people are not to inhabit under the same roof, or be in company together, except in the presence of their parents, or relations, till such time as they have received the blessing of the church; but when this is over, they are at liberty to consummate the marriage, which would be criminal, if done without the formalities established by the church.

The married couple must now desire the priest to bless the marriage-bed; and among the other blessings, which are asked by the mediation of the priest when he blesses the marriage-bed, one is, that those who are to lie in it, may increase and multiply. The holy water completes the sanctification of the nuptial-bed.

SEC. III.—HOLY ORDERS OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

THERE are seven orders in the Catholic Church, viz. the *sacristan* or door-keeper, the *reader*, the *exorcist*, the *acolyte*, the *sub-deacon*, the *deacon*, and the *priest*. The Seven orders in the Catholic Church.

The employment of the door-keeper, called *sacristan*, is to open and shut the church-doors, and also to take care that the bells be rung in due time; that of the *reader*, to read aloud the lessons and prophecies which are sung at matins and mass; that of the *exorcist*, to cast out devils from the bodies of persons possessed; that of the *acolyte*, to bring in the tapers to light them, to take care to put fire into the thurible, and frankincense into the navicula, to prepare the wine and water for the sacrifice, and to attend upon the sub-deacon, the deacon, and the priest.

The duty of the priest is to offer up the sacrifice of the mass, to administer the sacraments, (those of confirmation and orders excepted,) to preach the word of God, to bless the people, and to watch over the souls committed to his charge.

Church-benefices or livings, being the appurtenances of holy orders and the ecclesiastical state, can belong to those only who have been ordained, or who have received the tonsure. Ecclesiastical dignities are of much more ancient date than benefices, the latter taking their rise from the latter ages of the Church. Benefices and Dignities of the Church.

A person must be full fourteen years of age before he can be entitled to possess a benefice, and must have received the tonsure beforehand. All incumbents, especially those who have a cure of souls, are obliged to residence; but they frequently leave that duty to their curates. However, by the laws of the Church they are forbidden to receive any of the fruits of their benefices, during the time they may have been absent from them.

Bishops are considered as the fathers and pastors of the faithful, and the successors of the Apostles; by virtue of which superiority they are allowed the chief places in the choir, in chapters, and processions. As successors to the Apostles, they claim respect and homage from the laity; and as fathers and pastors, they are obliged to preach God's holy word to the faithful. This was the custom in the primitive Church; and there can be no prescription on this head, since, in the consecration of bishops, they are commanded to preach the Gospel to those over whom they are appointed pastors.

The ceremonial enjoins that bishops shall be clothed in purple, though the regular bishops may continue to wear the habit of their order. During Lent and Advent they must be in black, and always clothed in their sutane; but they are allowed to wear short clothes when on a journey.

The pope only has the right of electing bishops. This is a prerogative, which the partisans of the Court of Rome carry to a very great height, and to the prejudice of kings and other sovereign princes. Nevertheless, some of these have reserved to themselves the right of nominating to bishoprics; after which, the pope sends his approbation and the bulls to the new bishop.

When a person hears that the pope has raised him to the episcopal dignity, he must enlarge his shaven crown, and dress himself in purple. If he be in Rome, he must go and salute his holiness, and receive the rochet from him. Three months after being confirmed in his election, he is consecrated in a solemn manner.

The archbishops are superior to bishops, and are distinguished by the *pallium* or pall, which the pope sends them.

Archbishops. Anciently some bishops were honoured with the pallium, probably because of their high quality. The bishop of Bamberg in Germany, and those of Lucca and Pavia in Italy, enjoy the same privilege at this time.

If the person nominated to an archbishop's see be at Rome, the chief cardinal-deacon performs the ceremony of putting

the pall on his shoulders, although it was formerly done by the pope. After mass, the officiating prelate, clothed in his pontifical vestments, receives the oath of the archbishop elect; who is clothed in similar pomp, the gloves and mitre excepted. The officiating prelate then rises up, and putting the pall upon the shoulders of the archbishop elect, says these words to him: "To the glory of God, of the Blessed Virgin, of the Apostles St. Peter and St. Paul, of our Lord the Pope, and of the holy Church of Rome, &c. receive this pall, which is taken from the body of St. Peter, and in which the plenitude or perfection of the function of pontiff, or patriarch, or archbishop, is found; make use of it on certain days, noted in the privileges which are granted to you by the holy Apostolic See, in the name of the Father," &c. The archbishop is to wear the pall in the solemnities of the mass, and on high festivals, at the consecration of a church, at ordinations, at the consecration of a bishop, and at giving the veil to nuns. The pope alone has the privilege of always wearing the pall.

After the archbishop has received the pall, he goes up to the altar, and blesses the people. The pall consists of certain pieces of white woollen stuff, three fingers in breadth, and is embroidered with red crosses. Before it be given to the archbishop, either at Rome or elsewhere, by proxy, it must be left for one whole night on the altar of St. Peter and St. Paul. The use of the pall is rather ancient in the church, and some footsteps of that ornament are to be found among the Romans. The officers, who served at feasts and sacrifices, used to wear on the left-shoulder a pretty broad piece of woollen-stuff, with plaits or folds hanging down from it. This was the badge of their ministerial function; and after it had been consecrated to the use of the Christian Church, it received an additional sacred character by being anointed. The pall being made of wool, and worn on the bishop's shoulders, is said to be the emblem of the *lost sheep*, which the shepherd lays on his shoulders, and brings back into the sheepfold.

Every particular pall serves for the use of that archbishop only, to whom it was first given; neither can he make any use of it, in case he be translated from one archbishopric to another, nor leave it to his successors. When an archbishop dies, his pall is buried with him, and if he be buried in his own diocese, it is laid upon his shoulders; but if out of it, under his head. An archbishop, who has been translated to several sees, has all his palls buried with him; that of his last archiepiscopal see being laid upon his shoulders, and the rest under his head.

The principal functions of the master of the ceremonies are to take care that all those who have lately taken orders, observe the ceremonies and practices of the Church, and that every thing be done in the choir conformably to discipline. He must likewise regulate the order and march in all processions, assist at all pontifical ceremonies, such as solemn masses, the entry and consecration of bishops, synods, the visitation of a diocese, &c.

Masters of the Ceremonies. The master of the ceremonies must be in holy orders, and his vestments are of a purple colour; but he must be clothed in a surplice when in the choir, and at the divine offices of the church. On high festivals, he carries a wand, which is generally of a purple colour.

The prebends, or canons, are considered the senators of the Church. When a person is promoted to a prebend, he must be presented in a very ceremonious manner to the chapter, who assemble in the cathedral to receive him. He is presented by a deputy of the chapter, accompanied by the bishop's notary and some witnesses. This deputy conducts the person elected to the altar, which the latter kisses thrice; after which, he goes and takes his seat in the choir, and stays there some time, during which the deputy gives the chapter an account of his promotion; and afterwards he goes and takes him into the choir, and presenting him to the chapter, desires them to receive him as one of their brethren. The prebend elect then makes his confession of faith aloud, and swears to observe the ordinances of the Church, and of our Holy Father the Pope. Being thus solemnly installed, he is empowered to assist at the chapter, and to chant the office in the choir, &c.

The arch-deacon is superior to deacons and sub-deacons; his office is to examine the candidates for holy orders, and to present them to the bishop; and by virtue of this office, the arch-deacon is superior to a priest, notwithstanding that the order itself is inferior to that of the priesthood.

The arch-priest is superior to other priests. In the absence of his bishop, he celebrates the solemn masses. It is he who, on Ash-Wednesday, leads the penitents out of the church, puts ashes on their heads, and presents them to the bishop on Holy Thursday.

Arch Priest. Pescara assures us, that the office of Prothonotary was instituted by Saint Clement, and that at that time, and under the Popes, St. Antherus and St. Julius I. their office was to write the acts of the

Prothonotaries.

martyrs, and to look after the church-registers, &c. This office being of so great antiquity, greatly heightens the prerogatives of the pope. Prothonotaries are dignified with the title of prelates at Rome, and are empowered to create doctors, and to make bastards legitimate.

The word *Abbot*, which is originally Hebrew, or Syriac, signifies father. An abbot is a prelate inferior to a bishop: he is the Lord's vicar over his monks, their father, and the mystical spouse of his convent; which is said to be an epitome of the church of God. But it must be observed, that we are here speaking of regular abbots.

When an abbess elect is to be blessed, she first takes the oath of fidelity to her ordinary, and to the church over which she presides; then the prelate who receives her, gives her his blessing. After having laid both his hands on her head, he gives her the rule; and if she be not already a nun, blesses the white veil, and puts it on her head, in such a manner as to let it hang down over her breast and shoulders. The rest of the ceremony has nothing particular in it; it consists only of kissing the pix, and introducing the newly elected abbess among the nuns.

Nuns or abbesses never receive the veil but on solemn days, such as Sundays or high festivals. In general, young women ought not to be allowed to take the veil till five-and-twenty, nor till after they have passed the strictest examination, and particularly till it has been strongly inculcated to them, that they must live in a state of *virginity*, during the remainder of their days; a vow that may indeed be sincere in the warmth of devotion, or from the effect of pique; but the execution thereof depending upon innumerable circumstances, it is exposed to many dreadful temptations, even in the most strict retirement.

At the profession of a nun, the habit, the veil, and the ring of the candidate, are all carried to the altar, and she herself, dressed in magnificent apparel, and accompanied by her nearest relations, is conducted to the bishop. Two venerable matrons are her bride-women, when the bishop says mass. After the gradual is over, the candidate or candidates for the veil, attended by the same persons as before, and with their faces covered, enter the church, and present themselves before the bishop; but before this be done, the arch-priest chants an anthem, the subject of which is, *That they ought to have their lamps lighted, because the bridegroom is coming to meet them*; and while he is singing, they light their lamps. The arch-priest now presents them to the bishop, who calls them thrice

in a kind of chanting tone ; and they answer him in the same manner. The first time they advance to the entrance of the choir, the second to the middle, and the third to the chancel of the altar ; they kneel down before the bishop, with their faces to the ground, and afterwards rise up, singing this verse, *Receive me, O Lord ! according to thy holy word.* Being come before the prelate, and on their knees, they attend to the exhortation he makes them concerning the duties of a religious life. After this, they kiss his hand, and then lie prostrate before him while the choir chants the litanies. Then the bishop, having the crosier in his left hand, completes the benediction. After they have risen, he blesses the *new habits, which denote the contempt of the world, and the humility of their hearts.* A sprinkle of holy water concludes the consecration, and then the candidates go and put on their religious habits.

The veil, the ring, and the crowns, are blessed after the same manner. All these benedictions being ended, they present themselves in the habit of nuns before the bishop, and sing the following words on their knees, *Ancilla Christi sum, &c.* i. e. *I am the handmaid or servant of Christ, &c.* "In this posture they receive the veil, and afterwards the ring ; on delivering which the bishop declares he marries them to JESUS CHRIST. And lastly, the crown of virginity is given, to which they are called by the chanting of the anthem, *Veni sponsa Christi, &c.* "Come, O spouse of Christ, and receive the crown." In the first ages of the Church, it was usual to set a crown on the heads of those who died virgins, which custom is still observed in several parts of Christendom. Being thus crowned, an anathema is denounced against all who shall attempt to turn them from God, by endeavouring to make them break their vow in what manner soever, or on those who shall seize upon any part of their wealth. After the offertory, they present lighted tapers to the bishop, who afterwards gives them the communion ; and as it is the custom in several convents for the nuns to read the office and canonical hours, the bishop gives the breviary to those who are taken into such convents. These ceremonies being ended, the prelate gives them up to the conduct of the abbess, saying to her, *Take care to preserve, pure and spotless, these young women, whom God has consecrated to himself, &c.*

The custom of giving the veil to nuns is of great antiquity, and was practised before the age of St. Ambrose and Pope Liberius, as is manifest from the writers of the second and third century.

The cardinals are senators of the Church, and counsellors

of the successors of St. Peter. There are now three orders of cardinals, viz. bishops, priests, and deacons: six of these are bishops, fifty are priests, and four-
Cardinals.
 teen deacons. Sixtus V. fixed the number of cardinals to seventy, in order to imitate the ancient Sanhedrim of the Jews, which was composed of seventy elders, and it is this assembly which is now called the Sacred College.

When his holiness makes a promotion of cardinals, he gives them the title of priest, or deacon, as he thinks proper, they afterwards arrive at episcopacy by right of superiority, or by assuming the title of those who die; and because all cardinals are equal by their dignity, they take place according to the date of their promotion, and the quality of their title.

As cardinals, with regard to spirituals, govern the Church of Rome in all parts of the Christian world, subjects of the different nations of it are allowed to aspire to this dignity, according to the decisions of the Council of Trent. For this reason the popes often create those persons cardinals, who are nominated by crowned heads; who, it is presumed, propose the most eminent among their subjects for that purpose. Formerly the pope, in promoting cardinals, used to advise with the ancient ones; but now he creates them without consulting any person.

Those cardinals who are in greatest credit with the reigning pope, have certain kingdoms, states, republics, and religious orders, under their protection. They have the privilege of conferring the four orders called
Prerogatives of Cardinals.
 minor, viz. that of *door-keeper*, *reader*, *exorcist*, and *acolyte*, on their domestics, and on other persons. They are exempt from the reversion of their church-lands and effects to the Apostolical Chamber, as is customary in Italy, and may bequeath ecclesiastical wealth in the same manner as patrimonial. They have likewise some other very considerable privileges; such as a power of resigning their pensions, by particular grants from popes; to be exempt from the examination of bishops, when they are put into Sees; to be believed in a court of justice upon their bare words, without being obliged to take an oath; and their single testimony is equal to that of two witnesses. They are considered as citizens of whatever city the pope resides in, and do not pay any taxes. They grant a hundred days indulgence to whomsoever they please, and acknowledge no one but the pope for their judge or superior, particularly in criminal matters; for as to civil causes, they are always heard before the auditors of the Apostolic Chamber.

They have several other prerogatives; such as that of wearing purple habits, a mantle royal with a train six ells long, a red hat, and an episcopal mitre, though they be no more than priests, deacons, or clerks. Cardinals wore only the common vestment of priests, which was like a monastic habit, till the time of Innocent IV. The red hat was given them in 1243, in the Council of Lyons. Innocent IV. was desirous of gaining their friendship by this honourable badge, and to win them over to his interest, on account of the difference he had with the Emperor. Under Boniface IX. they were clothed in scarlet, and even in purple, and their robes were the same then as at present. According to other writers, they were not clothed in scarlet till the pontificate of Paul II. Others pretend that their robes were of that colour as early as Innocent III. and others again, that they wore the purple under Stephen IV. Paul II. distinguished them by the embroidered silk mitre, and the red cope and cap, red housings for their mules, and gilt stirrups. Gregory XIV. granted the red cap to the regulars, but ordered that their vestments should be of the colour of their order, and that they should have no rochet, nor wear a cloth cassock. Urban VIII. in order to add fresh splendour to the cardinalate, ordered that the title of *Eminence* should be given to them.

When a cardinal goes to Rome to receive his hat from the pope, a variety of ceremonies are performed, which our limits will not allow us to notice.

When the pope, by special favour, is pleased to send the hat to an absent cardinal, the following ceremonies are observed:—

In the first place it is to be observed, that whenever any person out of Italy is created cardinal, he is not permitted to put on the scarlet vestments until his holiness has sent him his *hat*: but he is nevertheless allowed to assume the title of cardinal. The hat is carried by an honorary chamberlain, together with a brief directed to the nuncio, or to the sovereign, or bishop, of the place where the cardinal elect resides. As soon as the latter hears of the approach of the chamberlain who brings the hat, he sends his household to meet him, with as many of his friends as he can collect together for that purpose, to do him the greater honour; and they all make their entry together in cavalcade, if allowed by the custom of the place. In this procession, the pope's chamberlain holds the red hat aloft on the mace, in order that it may be seen by all the spectators.

The pope's envoy, and the prelate who is to perform the



Crowning the Nuns. p. 382.



Anathema against false Nuns. p. 382.

ceremony, afterwards meet on a Sunday, or on some high festival, at the newly-elected cardinal's house, with their domestics, and as many friends as they can collect, and go in cavalcade to the principal church of the place in the following order.

The march is opened by drums and trumpets; then come the livery servants. The soldiers upon guard, in case there be any, or the inhabitants of the town under arms, march before the gentlemen, and afterwards the pope's chamberlain appears in a purple habit, holding the red hat aloft, and uncovered. Immediately after follows the newly-elected cardinal, with his cope on, his capuche on his head, and over all a black hat. On the right hand the prelate marches who is to perform the ceremony, and on his left some other person of quality; such as the king, prince, or chief nobleman of the place; and behind him the coaches of the cardinal, and of all such persons as are proud of doing him honour, with a great train. When this ceremony is performed in any place where a king or prince resides, their guards always attend on the newly-elected cardinal.

When the cavalcade is come to the church, mass is sung in it, and it is usual for the king or prince of the place, and likewise the chief lords and ladies of the court, to be present at it. Mass being ended, the prelate who is to perform the ceremony puts on his cope and mitre; then, being seated on a sort of throne, which stands on the steps of the altar, with his back turned to it, the person who brought the hat lays it on the altar, and presents the pope's brief to the prelate, who gives it to his secretary, and the latter reads it with an audible voice, so as to be heard by the whole congregation. Immediately after, the prelate makes an oration in praise of the newly-elected cardinal, and at the conclusion declares, that he is ready to deliver the hat to him, according to the order of his holiness.

Then the cardinal-elect advances towards the altar, and kneeling down, takes the same oath before the prelate which the newly-created cardinals take at Rome before the pope. Then the prelate arises from his seat, and taking off his mitre, says some prayers over the new cardinal, whose head is covered with the capuche; after which the prelate puts his hat on, and at the same time repeats a prayer out of the Roman Pontifical. He afterwards gives him the kiss of peace, upon which the *Te Deum* and some prayers are sung, which conclude the ceremony. The newly-created cardinal returns in cavalcade, with the red hat on his head.

The newly-elected cardinal is obliged to make the legate,

or messenger, a present of one hundred ducats at least; this being the fixed sum; but it amounts frequently to one, three, five thousand, and sometimes more ducats. The hat is usually handed to the officiating prelate by the pope's nuncio; but in case there be no such personage present, this office is performed by the emperor, king, archbishop, duke, or other highest person in authority.

When a cardinal dies, he is immediately embalmed, and the following night is carried into the church where his obsequies

are to be solemnized. One of the largest churches
Intermentof Cardinals. is generally made use of for this purpose, in order that the greater concourse of people may assemble in it. The inside is hung throughout with black velvet, and adorned with escutcheons, on which the arms of the deceased are represented; and a great number of white tapers are lighted up on both sides of the nave.

In the middle of the church a very high and large bed of state is set, covered with black brocade, with two pillows of the same colour, both which being put one above other, are laid under the head of the deceased cardinal, whose corpse lies in the middle of the bed, in such a manner that his feet point towards the great gate, and his head towards the high altar.

The corpse of the deceased cardinal is clothed in pontifical vestments, viz. the mitre; the cope, if he were a bishop; the chasuble, if a priest; and the tunic, if a deacon. The six masters of the ceremonies assist in this church, clothed in cassocks of purple serge, and all the pope's couriers in long robes of the same colour, with silver maces in their hands. There are likewise two of the deceased's tall lacqueys, each holding a wand, on which are fixed purple taffety streamers with the arms of the deceased cardinal; with these they continually fan his face, in order to keep off the flies.

On the morrow, after vespers, the religious mendicants meet together in a chapel of the same church, where they sing the matins of the dead, each order repeating alternately a *Nocturnum*, and the pope's music the *Lauds*. In the mean time the cardinals arrive clothed in purple, and at their coming into the church they put on a cope of the same colour. They then advance towards the high altar, where the host is kept, and there offer up their prayers, and adore it upon their knees. They afterwards go, one after another, to the feet of the deceased, and repeat the *Pater Noster*, &c. to which they add certain verses out of the Scripture, and the prayer, *Absolve*, &c. from the office of the dead.

They then make the usual sprinkling with holy water, and

go and seat themselves in the choir, where they hear the office of the dead sung by several monks and priests with great solemnity. Others repeat it to themselves, not stirring out of their places till it be ended; the cardinals, priests, and bishops, being on the epistle side, and the rest of the clergy in the lowest seats, which stand round the choir. The cardinals are always seated on the highest chairs or benches.

This being done, the congregation return to their respective homes, without any farther ceremony. At night, the corpse is stripped, and laid in a leaden coffin, which is put in another of cypress-wood covered with black cloth. The corpse is then carried in a coach, accompanied by the rector of the parish and the chaplains of the deceased, who go by torch-light to the church, where he is to be interred.

The majority of the cardinals who die in Rome are buried in the church of their title; unless they were Romans of exalted condition, and had desired to be interred in the vaults of their ancestors; or in the case of some foreign cardinal, who chooses to be buried in the church in Rome belonging to the clergy of his nation.

Four of the cardinals are buried with greater pomp and magnificence than the rest, viz. the dean of the Apostolic College, the grand penitentiary, the vice-chancellor, and the camerlingo.

The Romish rituals enjoin that his holiness, finding himself on his death-bed, must recollect himself, examine his conscience, make his confession, desire his confessor to give him a plenary indulgence, make some ^{Interment of a Pope.} reparation to those whom he has offended in his lifetime; afterwards receive the viaticum, assemble the sacred college, make a profession of faith before them, and beseech his eminences to forgive him for all those things, in which he may have offended any of them during his pontificate. The Roman ceremonial, among other particulars, enjoins his holiness, when he finds his last hour approaching, to recommend to the cardinals the choice of a pastor worthy to be his successor.

When the pope is at the last gasp, his nephews and domestics strip the palace of all its furniture; for immediately after his holiness has expired, the officers of the Apostolic Chamber come to seize the goods; but the pope's relations usually take care that they find nothing but bare walls, and the corpse lying on a *straw bed with an old wooden candlestick, in which there is only the snuff of a taper burning.*

At the same time, the cardinal camerlingo comes, in purple

vestments, accompanied by the clerks of the chamber in mourning, to inspect the pope's corpse. He calls him thrice by his christian name; and finding he gives no answer, nor discovers the least sign of life, he causes an instrument of his death to be drawn up by the apostolical prothonotaries. He then takes from the master of the pope's chamber the fisherman's ring, which is the pope's seal, (made of solid gold, and worth a hundred crowns,) and breaks it to pieces; giving them to the masters of the ceremonies, whose perquisite they are. The datary and secretaries, who have the rest of the seals of the deceased pope, are obliged to carry them to the cardinal camerlingo, who causes them to be broken in presence of the auditor of the chamber, the treasurer, and the apostolic clerks.

After this, the cardinal-patron and the pope's nephews are obliged to leave the palace in which he died, which is generally the Vatican, or Monte Cavallo, unless he happens to die suddenly. The cardinal camerlingo takes possession of these palaces in the name of the apostolic chamber; and after having entered it with the formality above-mentioned, he takes a short inventory of the remaining moveables; but, as before observed, there is seldom any thing left.

In the mean time, the penitentiaries of St. Peter, and the almoner of the deceased pope, after having caused the corpse to be shaved and washed, have it immediately embalmed. The dead pontiff is then clothed in his pontifical vestments, having his mitre on his head, and the chalice in his hand. The camerlingo, in the mean time, sends a body of guards to secure the gates of the city, the castle of St. Angelo, and other posts. The caporioni, or captains of the districts, likewise, patrol night and day with their guards, to prevent those who are caballing for the election of a new pope, from raising any sedition.

After the camerlingo has thus provided for the security of Rome, he comes out of the apostolical palace, and goes round the city in his coach, accompanied by the Swiss guards, and the captain of the guards, who usually attended upon the deceased pope. When this march begins, the great bell of the capitol is rung, which is never heard but at the death of the pontiff, to give notice of it to the citizens.

At this signal, the rota and all the tribunals of justice are shut up, as likewise the datary, pursuant to the bull of Pius V. *in eligendis*. No more bulls are now given out; the ordinary congregations are likewise suspended, insomuch that none but the cardinal camerlingo, and the cardinal grand penitentiary, continue in their employments.

As the popes have made choice of St. Peter's church for the place of their interment, when they die at Mount Quirinal (now Monte Cavallo) or in some other of their palaces; they are carried to the Vatican in a large open litter, in the middle of which is a bed of state, on which the corpse of the pope is laid, clothed in his pontifical vestments.

The litter is preceded by a van-guard of horsemen and trumpeters, who make a mournful sound, their instruments being furled with purple and black crape: these trumpeters march at the head of the first troop, mounted on dapple horses, the housings of which are of the same colour with the streamers fixed to the trumpets; but those of the van-guard are black velvet, with gold and silver fringe. These horsemen have their lances reversed; each squadron has a standard before it, surrounded with kettle-drums, muffled, which are beaten in a mournful manner.

Several battalions of the Swiss guards advance next; one half having muskets, and the other halberds, reversed. These are followed by twenty-four grooms, each leading a horse covered with sable housings that trail upon the ground. Several of the deceased pope's tall lacqueys walk without order, between the led horses, with lighted torches of yellow wax in their hands.

Then the twelve penitentiaries of St. Peter's advance, with each a flambeau in his hand, and surrounded with Swiss guards armed with backswords and halberds, and having the pope's litter in the midst of them. Immediately before the litter comes the cross-bearer mounted on a tall horse, with a caparison of wire all in net work, like a horse prepared for battle. Behind the bed of state, on which the pope's body lies, is seen the chief groom on a black horse, whose ears are cropped, and whose harness consists only of several stripes of linen cloth, a piece of white satin, and a grand plume of feathers, in three ranges, one above the other, on his head, and some gaudy tinsel.

Afterwards, twenty-four more grooms come forward, leading black mules with white housings, and twelve tall lacqueys with white horses covered with black velvet. After these, a troop of light horse advance, the men being all clothed in purple. Then come a troop of cuirassiers, and lastly the remainder of the Swiss guards, whose march is closed by a troop of carabineers, who guard a few pieces of brass cannon gilt, drawn on their carriages.

In the event of the pope dying in the Vatican, his body is immediately carried, by the back stairs, into Sixtus V.'s

Chapel. After it has lain there twenty-four hours, it is embalmed, and on the same day is carried to St. Peter's Church, attended only by the penitentiaries, the almoners, and other ecclesiastics, who follow the pontiff's corpse as far as the portico of the great church. The canons of the church come and receive it, singing the usual prayers appointed for the dead; and afterwards carry it into the chapel of the Blessed Trinity, where it is exposed for three days, on a bed of state raised pretty high, to the sight of the people, who crowd to kiss the feet of his holiness through an iron rail, by which this chapel is enclosed.

Three days after, the corpse being again embalmed with fresh perfumes, is laid in a leaden coffin, at the bottom of which the cardinals, whom he had promoted, lay gold and silver medals, on one side of which is the head of the deceased pope, their benefactor, and on the reverse, his most remarkable actions. This coffin is afterwards enclosed in another made of cypress wood, and is deposited within the wall of some chapel, till such time as a mausoleum can be erected to his honour in St. Peter's, or any other church, in case he himself had not given any orders for the erecting of one during his lifetime; which is frequently the case. But when his holiness declares by his last will, or by word of mouth, that he chooses not to be buried in St. Peter's, but in some other church which he names, then his body must not be translated till after he has lain a whole year in some of the chapels of that church; and in this case the corpse cannot be removed till a large sum of money has been paid to the chapter of St. Peter; it sometimes costs upwards of a million of livres, in case the pope, whose corpse they are desirous of removing, was famous for his piety, and that any grounds exist to presume that he will one day be canonized.

The Apostolic Chamber defray's the expenses of the pope's burial, which are fixed at one hundred and fifty thousand livres; in which sum, not only the expenses of the funeral are included, but also those to be paid for the erection of a mausoleum in St. Peter's, and illuminating a chapel of state, where a mass of *Requiem* is to be sung every morning for a week together, in presence of the sacred college, for the repose of the soul of the deceased pontiff. The funeral obsequies end the ninth day by another solemn mass, which is sung by a cardinal bishop, assisted at the altar by four other cardinals with their mitres on, who, together with the officiating priest, at the conclusion of the office, incense the representation of the coffin, and sprinkle it in the manner enjoined in the ritual.

in presence of four other cardinals, and all the prelates and officers of the late pope's court, who immediately retire as soon as the last *Requiescat in Pace* is pronounced, to which they answer, *Amen*.

After the pope's decease, the office of the mass is said according to the circumstances of the times; and one of the lessons is applied to the sacred college. On the first and last day of the nine days' devotion, two hundred masses are said for the soul of the deceased pontiff, the solemn mass is sung by a cardinal-bishop, and a hundred masses are sung on the other days.

SEC. IV.—HIERARCHY OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

THE pope, considered as a bishop, has a diocese subordinate to him. In this quality he appoints for his vicar-general a bishop, who, ever since Pius IV., is always a cardinal. The office of vicar-general is for life. The Pope's
Vicar General. He is, *ex officio*, the proper judge of ecclesiastics both secular and regular of both sexes, and also of the Jews and courtizans at Rome, and in its dependencies. He confirms and confers all sacred orders. He is empowered to inspect and visit all churches, monasteries, hospitals, and other pious houses, those of foreign nations excepted, which are all exempt. He has a vicegerent, who is always a bishop, to assist him in his episcopal functions. He has likewise a lieutenant, who is a prelate, but under the rank of bishop; a referendary of both signatures, who takes cognizance of all civil causes at his court; and a judge criminal who is a layman to judge all crimes committed by clerks and regulars. But that which makes the post of grand-vicar very considerable and profitable, is the power he has of deciding all differences that arise relating to *matrimony*.

The Apostolic Chamber pays him provisionally, exclusive of the profits arising from his courts, twelve hundred crowns of gold annually. He has, besides the above-mentioned officers, four notaries, or registrars, a provost, and a company of bailiffs and sergeants.

The chancellor wrote formerly, in the pope's name, all the rescripts, doubts, and scruples with respect to faith, which bishops and others proposed to him; insomuch The Pope's
Chancellor
and Vice-
Chancellor. that he executes the office of secretary of state, of the briefs, and that of chancellor. This dignity is purchased, and costs a hundred thousand crowns; it yields about twelve thousand crowns per annum to

the incumbent, and is for life. The jurisdiction of the cardinal vice-chancellor extends to the issuing out all apostolical letters and bulls, and also to all petitions signed by the pope.

The regent of the apostolic chancery is established by the vice-chancellor's patent, by which he is empowered to commit

Regent and all appeals to the referendaries and auditors of Registrars of the rota; and these he distributes to them by order, that each of them may be employed, and get the Pope's money in their turns. There are twelve referendaries, who are all prelates, and are called registrars of the high court; they are clothed in long purple robes. These employments are purchased, and the vice-chancellor has the nomination of six, the others being in the gift of the pope. The post of regent is purchased at 30,000 crowns, and the annual produce amounts to 3,000. The posts of the prelates referendaries, of both signatures, who are registrars of the high court, sell for 13,000 crowns, and produce each 1200 crowns annually. These thirteen prelates have their seats when the pope assists solemnly at the office, but the regent never appears there in that quality, to prevent any disputes about precedency.

The registrars of the high court draw up the minutes of all bulls, from the petitions signed by the pope, and collate them after they are written on parchment; they afterwards send them to the registrars of the lower court, who, with the registrars or apostolical writers, tax them. All these employments would not be worth so much, nor produce ten *per cent.* profit, were the bulls which collate to rich benefices issued out *gratis*; but nothing is ever purchased from the apostolical chancery, without paying sums proportionately to the value of the benefices, or other grants.

The cardinal-nephew, if the pope have any, or another cardinal, is always the pope's principal secretary of state; for this post is never given to any person under the dignity of cardinal. There are ten other secretaries of state, between whom, the provinces of the ecclesiastical state are divided; but they are in such subordination to him, that they do nothing without his participation; so that, properly speaking, they are no more than under-secretaries of state.

The cardinal-secretary signs, by the pope's order, all letters directed to princes, nuncios, vice-legates, governors, and prefects; and the patents of all those who are appointed for the government and administration of justice, in the whole territory of the ecclesiastical state. But the provisions or patents

of governors of cities, and large towns surrounded with walls; those of legates, vice-legates, and presidents, are drawn up by brief, under the fisherman's ring or seal; and all those who are raised to these employments, cardinals excepted, take an oath before the cardinal camerlingo, in the presence of a notary of the chamber, and swear on their own briefs. The absent do the same by proxy.

All the ambassadors of princes, after having had audience of the pope, come and visit the cardinal-secretary before they wait upon any of the magistrates of Rome; because the post of superintendent of the ecclesiastical state is annexed to this particular office. These two posts are for life, and the pope generally bestows them *gratis*; but sometimes, in case he be in urgent necessity for money, he sells them: they produce 15,000 crowns annually.

The under-secretaries of state are, by their office, obliged to draw up all the minutes which the cardinal-secretary may require, and to make a fair copy of all the letters and patents which he is to sign.

The prefect of the briefs is always a cardinal, whose post is purchased, and is for life: it costs 20,000 crowns; and produces annually 2500 crowns, exclusive of the extraordinary perquisites, which he receives from all those whose briefs he despatches. By his office he is obliged to review all the minutes, and sign all the copies of assessed briefs; but he is neither empowered nor commissioned to view the secret briefs. He is generally deputed by his holiness, with other prelates, to assist at the signature of grants, which is made in the pontifical palace. His post is very honourable and profitable, for he has a seat in the pope's palace near the datary, and when he revises the briefs, he may add or cut off any clauses: on which account, the secretaries, who all in their several turns assess these briefs, rate them either higher or lower, accordingly as they are desirous of favouring those who are to have them despatched; for which reason, all who come on these occasions, pay their court assiduously to this prefect, and endeavour to bribe him to their interest by some present, proportionable to the advantages granted by those briefs.

The office of *prefect of the signature of favour* is never given to any person under the dignity of cardinal, who receives from the apostolical chamber a yearly pension of 1200 crowns, so long as, by the pope's favour, he enjoys this post, who removes him whenever he pleases. The chief employ-

Prefect of the Briefs.

The Prefects of both Signatures.

ment of the cardinal-prefect is to preside over all those prelates, who assist at the signature of favour, made every Tuesday before the pope. He likewise signs all the petitions which are presented to this assembly, in which twelve cardinals, at least, always meet by the order of his holiness, one of whom is generally the cardinal-prefect of the signature of justice. There are likewise in this assembly twelve prelates referendaries, who have each their vote in the signature of justice.

The jurisdiction of the *prefect of the signature of justice* extends to judge the causes of those persons who think themselves injured by any sentence given by the ordinary judges. Every Thursday twelve prelates assemble at his house, and these are the most ancient referendaries of the signature, and have an active voice.

The college of the prelates referendaries is not limited as to the number, and the employments are not purchased, but are only titles of honour, which the pope bestows on persons of high birth and learning, as a step towards the most considerable employments of the Court of Rome. A person, before he can be thus promoted, must first have the nomination of the cardinal-patron, and the pope's consent. The cardinal-prefect of the signature of justice afterwards orders one of his officers to institute the proper inquiries, pursuant to the constitution of Sixtus V., by which it is enacted, that every candidate must prove he is doctor of both laws, that he has been an inhabitant of Rome for two years, that he is twenty-five years of age, and that he has wealth sufficient to support the prelature with honour.

The pope's datary and the chancery courts were formerly one and the same thing, but the multitude of affairs to be transacted therein, obliged his holiness to divide it into two tribunals, which are so nearly related to one another, that the chancery does no more than despatch all that has passed through the datary court.

The officer called datary is a prelate, and sometimes a cardinal deputed by his holiness to receive all such petitions as are presented to him, touching the provisions for benefices. By this post, the datary is empowered to grant all benefices that do not produce upwards of twenty-four ducats annually, without acquainting his holiness therewith; but for those which amount to more, he is obliged to cause the provisions thereof to be signed by the pope, who admits him to an audience every day. In case there be several candidates for the

same benefice, he is at liberty to bestow it on whomsoever of them he thinks proper, provided he has the requisite qualifications. The datary has a yearly salary of two thousand crowns, exclusive of the immense perquisites which he receives from those who address him for any benefice.

A Dominican friar, of the order commonly called the Preaching Brothers, is always *Master of the Pope's Palace*, ever since the founder, who was canonized by the name of St. Dominic, was raised to that dignity by Honorius III. in 1216. He preaches once a month in the public chapel of the palace, or appoints one of his brethren to perform the service for him. He has a seat in the pope's chapel, next to the deacon, or most ancient auditor of the rota. He has no fixed salary, because, by the statutes of his order, he is not allowed to have any money which he can call his own; but he is allowed a table at court with his companions and servants, and a coach is kept for him.

The Major Domo and other officers of the Pope's household.

He is the judge in ordinary of all printers, engravers, and booksellers, who are not permitted to publish or sell any work without his permission being first obtained. All books that come to Rome are examined by him, or his officers, who confiscate all that are prohibited by the index of the Council of Trent.

The other chief officers that reside in the pontifical palace, and near the person of his holiness, are the *major-domo*, or master of the household, which officers, in the courts of other princes, are called high-stewards. The pope's master of the household superintends all the domestics of the apostolical palace; but his holiness employs the chief steward of the hospital of the Literate Orphans, to furnish him with provisions, and the hospital has proper fees allowed to it.

There are always two gentlemen near the pope's person, who have the title of *masters of the chamber*. The chief *cup-bearer*, who is called *coppeiro*, presents the glass to his holiness, with a salver which he holds before him, and kneels on both knees, when the pope drinks. The officer whose business it is to see the dishes brought in order to the pope's table, is called in Italian *scalco*. The *carver*, who cuts up the meat before the sovereign pontiff, the *chief harbinger* who regulates the apartments of the pope's household, and all the other officers above-mentioned, are prelates, who wear purple vestments, and have each two deputies to officiate in their absence.

There are likewise several *privy chamberlains*, all prelates,

who are clothed in long purple cassocks with sleeves trailing to the ground, but have no cloak. Among these, eight are declared *partakers*, and divide among themselves whatever presents are made them; and of these the pope chooses one to be his privy-treasurer, whose business it is to distribute such alms as his holiness bestows privately.

Another of these privy-chamberlains is appointed *master of the wardrobe*. He is entrusted with all the plate, whether of gold or silver; all the jewels and shrines for relics, as also the *Agnus Deis*, which he distributes daily to pilgrims and strangers at a certain hour. The *pope's physician* in ordinary is also a privy chamberlain, but not the other two, who are physicians of his household.

The fixed pension of each privy-chamberlain amounts to a thousand crowns annually; and the *partakers* have at least double that sum arising from the presents made at the creation and death of every cardinal. The chamberlain who distributes the *Agnus Deis* receives more than all the rest, particularly when any extraordinary solemnity induces foreigners to visit Rome; such as the years of the jubilee, an embassy, a holy canonization that makes a great noise, or any famous miracle. In such cases he has several thousand crowns given him for the little consecrated images of wax.

The pope's *privy chaplains* have the same salary as the chamberlains. They assist in saying the office of the breviary, and wait upon him at mass, when he celebrates it in private. One of these carries the cross before his holiness when he goes abroad, and in case he goes on foot another of them supports his train.

When the pope assists at solemn mass, and in processions, his chaplains carry the mitres and triple crowns enriched with precious stones, which they display in a very pompous manner, holding them aloft with both their hands to show them to the people as his holiness walks along. There are also chaplains belonging to the guards and grooms, who say mass every morning in the guard-room, &c. these are called common chaplains; their yearly salary amounts to no more than fifty crowns, but then they are paid besides for whatever masses they celebrate.

The pope's *assistants* and *valets de chambre* have five hundred crowns a year, and several other very considerable profits; not to mention that as they have a more free access to his holiness than the rest of his domestics, they never fail of benefices.

There are likewise honorary chamberlains, who are pre-



Obsequies of the deceased pope. p. 387.



Pope's corpse exposed in St. Peter's Church. p. 390.

lates of the first quality, among whom the pope generally makes choice of a Frenchman, a German, and a Spaniard. The chamberlains of the *Boussole*, are so many ushers, because they always keep a guard at his holiness's chamber-door. The chamberlains without the walls are so called, because they follow the pope without the Vatican, and attend upon him in all his public cavalcades, with the chamberlain's esquires, clothed in red cloth, and covered with a large cope of the same colour furred with ermine. Each of these do duty in the apostolical palace, and have their distinct office; but the honorary chamberlains never mount guard, nor appear in the pope's ante-chamber but when they please. These are generally employed by the pope to carry the red cap or hat, to any newly-elected cardinals, who are not in Rome at the time of their being raised to that dignity.

The pope has a master of the household and scalco, in the Vatican as well as on Monte Cavallo; and another carver, whose office it is to prepare the banquet, which he gives to the cardinals on certain extraordinary occasions, and on solemn festivals; another scalco and carver for the ambassadors, and other distinguished foreigners, whom the pope entertains in a splendid manner; and another, who prepares the dinner given to the thirteen poor pilgrims, serves up the first dish at their table, and treats them in a magnificent manner every day, in imitation of Pope Clement VIII., who restored this custom, first introduced by Gregory the Great. These officers are clothed in purple.

The pope always makes choice of a native of Rome for the master of his stables. This officer bears the name of *cavilarrizzo*.

The harbingers above-mentioned, assign the apartments to the pope's household, and have deputy harbingers and their assistants, who are entrusted with the hangings, ornaments, and other furniture of the pontifical palace. They are likewise employed to adorn the apartments when either consistory, signature of favour, or congregation is held.

There are likewise footmen, called *grooms*, who keep guard in the halls of the pope's palace, and are very numerous, because the pope bestows this place on all those who were his grooms when he was cardinal; and moreover, he likewise gives those places to all the chiefs of the grooms that are in the service of the cardinals and ambassadors, who are present at Rome at the time of his creation. Their clothing is a red, flowered satin; and whenever they go out, they have a blue cloth cloak and a sword, the hilt of which is of silver gilt.

The pope has twelve officers, who have each a red wand, and twelve others, who carry silver maces, and walk before him in a ceremonial habit, every time he appears in public with his mitre and cope on. When the consistory is held, they guard the door, and wait upon his holiness when he is entering or departing. These twenty-four posts are all purchased for six hundred crowns each, and produce about fifty annually.

The pope's sacristan, who takes the title of prefect, is always a friar of the order of the hermits of St. Austin. This prefect is entrusted with all the ornaments, gold and silver vessels, crosses, cups, thuribles, shrines for enclosing relics, and other valuable things belonging to his holiness's sacristy.

Prefect of
the Pope's Sa-
cristy.

It is he that prepares the host, and inspects the bread and wine, when the pope celebrates mass pontifically, or in private. Whenever his holiness assists solemnly at mass, his sacristan places himself among the assisting bishops, above the dean, or the senior auditors of the rota; and observes to take off or put on the pope's mitre, as often as he is required by the rubric of the Roman Pontifical.

He distributes the relics, and signs the memorials of those indulgences, which pilgrims desire for themselves and relations. We shall make two remarks on this head:—*First*, that indulgences are never granted to any pilgrims but to those who are actually upon a journey, and appear personally before the pope's sacristan.

Secondly, with regard to those indulgences which persons who go to Rome desire for their relations, they are not to be granted to them but when they are in their expiring moments; i. e. the pope grants by briefs, addressed to certain persons, *for whose names blanks are left*, a power of making choice of what confessor they shall think proper, when at the point of death; and to be absolved by him from all sins in general, and all reserved cases, of what nature soever; with a full power to this confessor, of remitting to the person to whom this brief is given, all the punishments which God might otherwise have inflicted on him for his sins, whether in this life or after his death, in hell or in purgatory.

Formerly, the chancellor superintended the pope's library; but in latter ages it is an office apart, yielding twelve hundred crowns in gold annually, to the possessor. The pope never bestows it on any person under the dignity of a cardinal, who assumes the title of librarian of the Vatican. He has two sub-librarians, the first of whom is generally one of the pope's domestic prelates,

Pope's Li-
brarian.

and has six hundred crowns a year, with an allowance of bread and wine for the whole year. The second has four hundred crowns, and the same provision as the former.

These three places are always filled by persons of great learning, who, to the knowledge of other tongues, add the Oriental languages in particular. The librarian has the direction of a noble printing-house, where nothing is printed without his permission. It abounds with types of all the known tongues in which the learned are conversant.

His holiness has six masters of the ceremonies, two of whom are called assistants, and the other four supernumeraries. The two assistants receive of every newly-created cardinal 224 crowns of gold, and of the heirs of those who die, 100 crowns; which sums they equally share. Their employments bring them in altogether about 1000 crowns yearly, besides a table in the Vatican. All the chamberlains have an equal authority to regulate pontifical functions, to acquaint the cardinals with their duty, and to issue orders to all persons belonging to the court.

They all have admission into the conclave, and likewise in the congregation of rites, but one only goes to the ceremonial congregation. Whenever the pope sends any cardinal *a latere* out of Rome, he deposes one of the supernumerary masters of the ceremonies to attend upon him. They are clothed in purple cassocks, with black buttons and facings, and sleeves trailing on the ground; in the papal chapel they wear a red cassock as the rest of the cardinals, and rochets like the prelates.

The Ruota is one of the most august tribunals of Rome, and is composed of twelve prelates, one of whom must be a German, another a Frenchman, and two Spaniards. Each of the sovereigns of these three nations names a prelate, who bears the name of his crown. The other eight are Italians, three of whom must be Romans, one Bolognese, a Ferraran, a Milanese, a Venetian, and a Tuscan. Each auditor has four notaries or registrars, and the senior auditor performs the function of president.

Tribunal of
the Ruota.

They meet in the apostolical palace every Monday and Friday, except during vacations; but when the pope resides in the palace of Mount Quirinal, the assemblies are held in the chancery.

They take cognizance of all such suits in the territory of the church as are brought in by way of appeal, and also of matters beneficiary and patrimonial. This tribunal does not judge a cause at once, but pronounces as many sentences,

called decisions, as there are points contested in a suit. After these sentences are given, the party may get his cause revised again by the pope himself, at the signature of favour, which is a kind of civil petition. The place of these auditors produces but 1000 crowns yearly to each, and they receive no fees; but then they are generally created cardinals by way of reward for the pains they have taken.

This council has the direction of all the pope's demesnes, the finances of which consist in what is called the revenues

The Apostolic Chamber. of the Apostolic Chamber. It consists of the cardinal great chamberlain, who is at the head of it; of the governor of the ruota, who is the vice-chamberlain; of a treasurer-general, an auditor, a president, an advocate-general, a solicitor-general, a commissary, and twelve clerks of the chamber; of whom four are, first the prefect of the plenty of grain; a second the prefect of provisions, and such like commodities; the third the prefect of the prisons; and the fourth the prefect of the streets. The remaining eight are deputed to take cognizance of various causes, each privately in his chamber.

Formerly the pope used to depute six clerks of his household for the direction of his revenues, from which those who have the management of them receive their names. Sixtus V. ordered that their employments should be purchased, and increased their number to twelve. They meet every Monday and Friday in the pope's palace, and their jurisdiction extends to all things relating to the pope's demesnes.

Each clerk of the chamber takes immediate cognizance of all causes that are sent up from the Apostolical Chamber by appeal. None of the places of clerk of the chamber are purchased for less than 80,000 crowns, nor yield less than 8000 crowns annually. The posts of treasurer-general, and auditor of the Apostolical Chamber, are purchased for similar sums, and produce similar revenues.

The temporal dominions of the pope are at present confined to a territory south of the river Po, in Italy, containing not

Present state of the Roman Catholic Church. more than fifteen thousand square miles, and two millions and five hundred thousand inhabitants. The ecclesiastical subjects of the pope are variously estimated from eighty to one hundred and twenty millions, who are scattered over the whole world. The countries which are considered entirely papal, are the pope's dominions in Italy, Spain, Portugal, and South America; France, Austria, Poland, Belgium, Ireland, and Canada, almost entirely. Switzerland has seven hundred thousand;

England more than half a million. Others are found in Russia, Sweden, Denmark, the West India Islands, and the United States.

As a temporal prince, the political power of the pope is now regarded with absolute contempt by all the European governments; but it is still supported by them as a matter of policy.

France, more particularly, appears almost ready to throw off entirely the trammels of the papal yoke; for, as the Catholic priesthood has been found uniformly to give its support to an arbitrary form of government, and to neglect the instruction of the people, the Bourbon dynasty has been overthrown by the revolution of 1830, and the Romish Church cut off from being the established religion, and free toleration granted. Still, as the Roman Catholic is the professed religion of the majority in the French nation, its clergy at present continue to receive their usual salaries from the new government. So grossly have the French been deluded with the popish ceremonies and superstitions, that the more intelligent have become infidels. Such, indeed, is the case throughout the Roman Catholic countries, and especially in Italy; the people therefore are ill-prepared, at present, to embrace the pure Christianity of the New Testament, of which, indeed, they are almost universally ignorant. Nevertheless, the vigorous efforts of some devoted servants of Christ at Paris, with several agents from the Methodist, Continental, London, and Baptist Missionary Societies in England, and especially with the revival of religion among the Protestants of the south of France, all contributing to the circulation of the scriptures, and the diffusion of divine knowledge, will, we trust, be blessed of God, to produce an evangelical reformation in that great country.

Education being vigorously promoted through many parts of Germany, and the holy scriptures being extensively circulated, popery will not be able much longer to retain its hold on the millions in Austria and Hungary. Even the Italian states, and Rome itself, have received many copies of the blessed word of God; and it is believed, that not a few Catholics, and some of the priests, are sincerely studying the scriptures of truth for their internal salvation. Knowledge, by the British system of education, is increasing in South America; and, with it, the holy scriptures are circulated among the superstitious Catholics.

In British India and the east, the Roman Catholic Church has an establishment of three archbishops and seventeen bishops, with many priests, besides Romish missionaries; bu

scriptural knowledge, as we have seen is advancing in those populous regions of the earth.

Canada has the Roman Catholic system for the established religion; and efforts are being made to extend the influence of popery in the United States of America, particularly in the wonderous valley of the Mississippi; but its antidote is provided in the Bible.

Ireland is chiefly popish; and in that injured, degraded, and distracted country, there are nearly five thousand Roman Catholic priests. But scriptural light and knowledge are advancing among the people, notwithstanding their prejudices against the Protestants.

England, at the commencement of this century, it is said, had not quite fifty Roman Catholic chapels; now it has about four hundred and fifty: but this cannot be matter of wonder, when we consider the amazing increase of its population; the influx of Irish; and the ignorance of multitudes of the lower classes concerning the essentials of religion as taught in the New Testament. But a scriptural education of the people with the diligent and faithful preaching of the Gospel, will be the effectual means of subverting every false system of religion, and of converting the ignorant millions of mankind to the saving knowledge of God in Christ Jesus.

PART IV.

RELIGIOUS CUSTOMS AND CEREMONIES OF PROTESTANT COMMUNITIES.

UNDER the head of Protestant Communities it is proposed, for the sake of convenience, to treat of the principal denominations which, whether strict or lax, orthodox, or otherwise, deny the supremacy of the Pope of Rome, and the discipline of that church; adopting, for their profession of faith, articles in their estimation more scriptural, and ceremonies and modes of worship, varying according to their views of the requirements of the gospel.

SEC. I.—LUTHERANS.

The Lutherans derive their name from Martin Luther, a celebrated reformer, who, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, opposed the church of Rome with great zeal and success. Origin.

The system of faith embraced by the Lutherans, was drawn up by Luther and Melancthon, and presented to the Emperor Charles V., in 1530, at the diet of Augusta, or Augsburg, and hence called the Augus- System of Faith. tan or Augsburg Confession. It is divided into two parts, of which the *former*, containing twenty-one articles, was designed to represent, with truth and perspicuity, the religious opinions of the reformers; and the *latter*, containing seven articles, is employed in pointing out and confuting the seven capital errors which occasioned their separation from the church of Rome: these were, communion in one kind, the forced celibacy of the clergy, private masses, auricular confession, legendary traditions, monastic vows, and the excessive power of the church. From the time of Luther to the present day, no change has been introduced into the doctrine and discipline received in this church. The method, however, of illustrating, enforcing, and defending the doctrines of Christianity, has undergone several changes in the Lutheran church; and, though the confessions continue the same, yet some of the doctrines which were warmly maintained by Luther, have been of late wholly abandoned by his followers. The Lutherans are far from allowing that good works are in any wise meritorious with regard to salvation. They acknowledge, generally, that Christ died for all who were partakers of Adam's transgression; but that those only who should believe in him, and persevere in that faith to their lives end, should be saved. The foreknowledge of God from all eternity of this faith is made by them the basis, or foundation, of the election or predestination of the faithful. They view election in the very same light as they do justification. If the instrumental cause of the latter be faith, God's foreknowledge of that faith of the faithful is their election. As to free-will, the Lutherans deny its power before the conversion of a sinner, and maintain, that none are converted but by the prevailing efficacy of grace alone. The Lutherans acknowledge but two sacraments, that is to say, baptism, and the Lord's supper. They deny transubstantiation, the mass, the elevation and adoration of the host, the ceremonies, and all that ex-

ternal worship, which the church of Rome observes, with respect to the body and blood of Jesus Christ: but they believe, that the real presence of the humanity of Jesus Christ is with, in, and under the elements of bread and wine in the holy communion, and maintain in vindication of their ubiquity, that all the perfections of Christ's divinity were communicated to his humanity. They reject the adoration of saints and relics. Although it be our bounden duty, they say, to imitate the saints, and set them before our eyes, as great examples, yet we ought not to invoke them, nor imagine that there are any latent virtues in their relics, &c. They condemn all acts of penance and human expiations, such as solemn vows, pilgrimages, nine days' devotions, macerations, and other works of supererogation, that is to say, such mortifications, as, by the laws of Christianity, are no ways imposed upon us, &c. They reject all distinction of meats, and the observance of Lent, all monastic vows and convents, the celibacy of the clergy, and the performance of divine service in an unknown tongue; and, in short, all the ceremonies practised in the Romish church.

Their pastors, with their several congregations, either meet at the parsonage, or at some convenient place near the church intended to be consecrated, and afterwards march in procession two and two, once at least, and sometimes thrice, all round it, singing certain divine hymns or canticles all the way. As soon as this previous act of devotion is over, they enter the church, where the service is opened with singing again; after which some portion of the sacred scriptures is read to them, and a sermon preached on the solemnity of the day. If the income or revenue of the church will admit of it, or the congregation are able and willing to defray the expense, the superintendent of their metropolis is requested to assist at the ceremony, to give his benediction to the church, and consecrate it with some proper discourse of his own composing, which favour is acknowledged, not only by a handsome gratuity, but an elegant entertainment.

Two divines are generally appointed for the purpose of ordination, who not only inquire into the real merit, and natural qualifications of the candidates, such for instance, as a proper stature, a musical voice, health, and strength, but also into their knowledge of the learned languages, their abilities to argue, on both sides, all controversial questions. They inquire likewise into the religious principles, and particular tenets, of the respective candi-

Consecra-
tion of their
churches.

Their min-
isters.

dates. It is highly requisite and just that they should be sound and orthodox, that is to say, be in all respects conformable to the doctrines which they are intended to maintain and teach, and which the church they are to serve professes; and that they should be fixed and unalterable during their establishment in that sacred function. After such due inquiries having been made, the candidate is ordered to preach before his examiners on some particular text of their own choosing. Upon the report of his being duly qualified, a church may be offered him; however, according to the Saxon discipline, he is obliged, before he is absolutely declared minister of any congregation, to preach several times before them, and the opinion of the people must afterwards be consulted, and their approbation and consent procured.

The day of ordination being fixed, the candidate repairs to the church, where he is to be ordained in the presence of several ministers, ecclesiastical judges, and a numerous congregation of the faithful. He there Ordination
makes a confession of his faith, either before, or of ministers.
some time during the sermon. In the prayer
after the sermon, the candidate is particularly taken notice of, and prayed for by name. As soon as the minister withdraws from the pulpit, the *veni spiritus sancte* is immediately sung, and during the performance the superintendent, who is primate of the Lutheran clergy, repairs to the altar, accompanied by six colleagues, or coadjutors, and followed by the candidate, who falls down on his knees before him. Here the superintendent, addressing himself to his six colleagues, having first communicated the candidate's request, invites them to join with him in prayer on his behalf; in the next place he reads the formulary of election, which is accompanied with another prayer; and after that, directs his discourse to his six coadjutors, saying, "Dearly beloved brethren in our Lord Jesus, I exhort you to lay your hands on this candidate, who presents himself here before us in order to be admitted a minister of the church of God, according to the ancient apostolical institution, and to concur with me in investing him with that sacred office." After this formal address, he lays his hands directly on the head of the candidate, and says to him, *Sis manesque consecratus Deo*, which literally construed is, *Be thou, and so remain to be, devoted to the service of God.* The six colleagues repeat, after the superintendents, the ceremony of imposition of hands, and make use of the same form of words: after which, the superintendent addresses himself to the person thus ordained, in the terms following: "Being

assembled here with the aid and assistance of the Holy Ghost, we have made our humble supplications to God for you, and hope that he will vouchsafe to hear our prayers. Wherefore, I ordain, confirm, and establish you, in the name of the Lord, pastor and spiritual instructor of the saints belonging to the church, &c.; govern it in the fear of the Lord, and have a watchful eye over it, as a faithful shepherd over his flock," &c. These words are, properly speaking, the very essence of ordination. The superintendent, after he has pronounced this exhortation, withdraws from the altar, and the stated minister of the place approaches it, dressed in his sacerdotal vestments, to read the communion service, and to consecrate the bread and wine, which he administers to the new pastor, who receives it upon his knees. Some few hymns, or canticles, and the usual benediction, conclude the ceremony.

At their first entrance into the church, both men and women put up an ejaculatory prayer, the former holding their hats and the latter their fans before their faces. The same ceremony is observed as soon as divine service is over. The prayer generally made use of on these occasions, is the Lord's Prayer. When the congregation of the faithful are met in order to apply themselves to any exercise of devotion, whether it be preaching, or reading the scriptures only, or praying, it is always introduced by the singing of some psalms or spiritual hymns suitable to the occasion.

They have two sermons at least every Sunday, especially if it be a solemn festival, that is to say, one in the morning and another in the afternoon. There is a catechetical lecture besides, at which their probationers are always examined. Their burials are frequently put off likewise till Sunday, for the benefit of a prayer, or at least a funeral sermon, which the Lutherans always preach upon the decease of any of their members, whether young or old, rich or poor. Their texts are very seldom taken out of those books which the Lutherans and the Protestants call apocryphal. The last thing which we shall take notice of in relation to their sermons, is, that of their *circular predications*, which is the term they make use of to distinguish those sermons, which their pastors are obliged to preach at particular times in the metropolitan church in presence of the superintendent, in order that he himself may form a just judgment of their method, and the progress they make in the ministerial office; also that he may examine their principles, and prevent them deviating from the orthodox faith.

After the sermon, the service concludes with some select prayers or supplications to Almighty God, thanksgivings, and publications. In the first, all sick persons, all women labouring of child, or in child-bed, all that travel by land or by water, all persons any way afflicted or distressed in mind, body, or estate, are recommended to God as proper objects of his succour, comfort, and assistance. In Denmark, all those who are drawing near to the time appointed for the consummation of their marriage, are likewise recommended to God in the prayers of the church. In their thanksgivings, those particular persons who had received great mercies, desire to return their grateful acknowledgments to Almighty God for the same. In their publications, timely notice was given of such matters as particularly related to the church; that is to say, of some extraordinary acts of devotion, such as the observance of an ensuing solemn festival, or fast, or the like, &c. In some places, the public orders of the civil magistrate are read in the pulpit.

The Lutherans retain the use of the altar for the celebration of the Holy Communion. They likewise make use of lighted tapers in their churches, of incense, and a crucifix on the altar, of the sign of the cross, and of images, &c. Several of their doctors acknowledge, that such materials add a lustre and majesty to divine worship, and fix at the same time the attention of the people.

The Lutherans retain the observance of several solemn festivals after their reformation. They keep three solemn days of festivity at Christmas. In some Lu- Festivals.
theran countries, the people go to church on the night of the nativity of our blessed Saviour with lighted candles, or wax tapers in their hands, and the faithful, who meet in the church, spend the whole night there in singing, and saying their prayers, by the light of them. Sometimes they burn such a large quantity of incense, that the smoke of it ascends in the form of a whirlwind, and their devotees may properly enough be said to be wrapt up in it. It is customary likewise in Germany to give entertainments at such times to friends and relations, and to send presents to each other, especially to the young people, whom they amuse with very idle and romantic stories, telling them, that our blessed Saviour descends from heaven on the night of his nativity, and brings with him all kind of playthings.

They have three holidays at Easter, and three at Whitsuntide, as well as those before mentioned at Christmas. These festivals have nothing peculiar in them, with respect to the

ceremonies observed at those times; but with regard to some particular superstitions, they are remarkable enough: as for instance, that of the Paschal water, which is looked on as a sovereign remedy for sore eyes, and very serviceable in uniting broken limbs. This Paschal water is nothing more than common river water, taken up on Easter-day before the rising of the sun: They have another superstitious notion with respect to their horses: they imagine, that the swimming them in the river on Easter-day before the sun rises, preserves them from lameness.

The other festivals observed by the Lutherans, are New-Year's day, or the Circumcision, a festival not near so ancient as the four above-mentioned; the festival of the Three Kings, or otherwise, the Epiphany; the Purification of the Blessed Virgin, or Candlemas, and Lady-day, or the Annunciation. There is no public work, nor service devoted to the Blessed Virgin, nor are there any processions, or other ceremonies, which are observed by the Roman Catholics on the two latter festivals. The festival of the Sacred Trinity is solemnized on the Sunday after Whit-Sunday; that of St. John Baptist on the 24th of June, and that of the Visitation of the Blessed Virgin on the 2d of July, as it is by the Roman Catholics. To conclude, the festival of St. Michael the Archangel, or rather the ceremonies observed by the Lutherans on that day, are the remains only of an ancient custom, which has been preserved amongst them, although somewhat extraordinary, as the members of their communion retain no manner of veneration for angels.

In 1523, Luther drew up a formulary of the mass and communion, for the particular service of the church of Wirtemberg.

Liturgy. Without attempting to particularize the various parts of it, it may be observed, that all the churches where Lutheranism prevailed, were obliged entirely to conform to it. However, those orders were never punctually obeyed. Some Lutheran countries have one ritual and some another; there is a difference, likewise, in their liturgies; though as to the fundamental articles, they all agree.

On the Sunday when the communion is to be administered, the minister, immediately after the sermon, prays to Almighty

Communion. God for all those in particular who purpose to receive the holy communion. There is no form of prayer, however, for that purpose, but the minister is at free liberty to say what he thinks most suitable to that solemn occasion. After the sermon likewise they sing a psalm, or some short hymn or hymns adapted to that particular act of devo-

tion. Whilst they are singing, those of the congregation who are duly prepared for the receiving of the sacrament, advance towards the altar, and fall down on their knees; at least so many of them as can with convenience approach it at once. As soon as the hymn is over, the minister says, *Let us pray*; and sings at the same time the Lord's Prayer: and when the congregation have said Amen, he sings the words of the institution of the Lord's Supper. In some places the whole congregation sing, with an audible voice, both the prayer and the words of the institution along with the minister, which is a manifest error, since the voice of the whole church, in general, drowns that of the celebrant, or officiating pastor. They have another custom, which is not, however, looked on as absolutely essential, and that is, to make the sign of the cross on the host, at the time of pronouncing these words, *This is my body*, and another on the cup, when those other words are repeated, viz. *This is my blood, &c.* Though these signs, after all, are only made *in commemoration of the cross of Christ*, which neither add nor diminish, yet, it has been observed, that should the minister neglect those signs, some feeble-minded persons would be offended at such omission, and imagine that the sacrament would thereby lose its sacred force and virtue. It is not only this sign of the cross made on the elements of bread and wine, that the populace lay such a stress upon as a fundamental article; but they very seldom cut a loaf, which has not the sign of a cross first made upon it with a knife.

In several parts of Saxony, and indeed in some of their principal cities, when the minister consecrates the elements, he rings a little bell twice, in a very solemn manner; and in most Lutheran churches, the pastor, before he administers the sacrament, puts on his surplice, and over that a vestment with several crosses fastened on it, which, however, ought not to be confounded with the stole, worn by the Roman Catholic priests, as there is no manner of resemblance between them. In some places, the pastor, after he has read the gospel at the altar, throws the vestment before-mentioned over his head, and lays it on the table. After the creed is sung, he goes into the pulpit, and preaches in his surplice. After the sermon is over, he returns to the altar, and resumes his vestment.

We shall reckon amongst the number of the ceremonies still preserved amongst them, that of making use of wafers instead of bread at the communion, on each of which there is the figure or impression of a crucifix. When the communicant has received, he falls down on his knees before the altar in order to return God thanks for his spiritual refreshment: in

several places it is customary to congratulate each other on that joyful occasion. Two clerks, or two young choristers, who attend at the altar, generally hold a white linen napkin before the communicants, lest either through the carelessness of the pastor, who administers the communion, or the communicant himself, some part of the host should accidentally fall upon the ground, or any part of the wine be spilt. As soon as the communion is over, the pastor sings a verse or two of some psalm suitable to the occasion, with an Hallelujah, to which the choir answers with another. The pastor afterwards continues to read some general thanksgivings, and the congregation, joining with the choir, answer, Amen.

The Lutherans never administer the sacrament to infants; but it is customary amongst them to carry it to those who are sick, or on a death bed; and this is the method

Communion observed by them on those particular occasions.
to the Sick. In some places they make a kind of altar of the table which stands in the sick person's room, that

is to say, they cover it with a piece of tapestry, or clean linen cloth, and set two lighted candles, or wax-tapers, upon it, and a crucifix between them with a paten and chalice, or utensils, or vessels appropriated to the like service. According to the discipline of the Lutherans, the communion ought to be administered in the presence of some of the party's relations and domestics; but if the communicant should happen to have no such friends nor servants near him, then some neighbours ought to be invited to be witnesses to the celebration of it. The relations or friends of the sick person, are permitted, if they think proper, to partake with him of that holy ordinance, and for that purpose, they must have notice on the previous night, or some few hours at least, that they may be duly prepared to join in that solemn act of devotion: the Lutherans do not only carry this their private communion to those who are sick or dying, but to those persons likewise who are far advanced in years, and incapable of attending the public worship. To these persons, the minister, who gives the communion to them, makes a serious exhortation, which may with propriety be called a domestic sermon, adapted to such private or domestic communion.

Confession is looked on as highly necessary and expedient in all places where Lutheranism prevails. And in the short

Confession. Lutheran catechism, there are several forms of confession for the peculiar assistance and direction of those who have not capacity sufficient of themselves to reflect and contemplate as they ought on the nature of their sins; such,

for example, are those forms of confession principally intended for the spiritual improvement of masters and servants. In the introduction to these formularies, there is a discourse by way of dialogue between the penitent and the minister who takes his confession, beginning with the following address: Reverend and dear Sir, I humbly beseech you to take my confession, and for the love of God to pronounce the pardon and remission of my sins. If the penitent be not conscious to himself of his being guilty of any of the sins particularly specified in the formularies, he must mention such others as his conscience shall at that time accuse him of. If he can think of none, which is morally impossible, let him, says the catechism, mention no one in particular, but receive the pardon and remission of his sins, on making a general confession only. The same catechism informs us, that the confessor asks the penitent the following question, which beyond all doubt is introduced between the confession and the absolution: Do not you firmly believe, that this absolution pronounced by me is an absolution from God himself? After the penitent has answered in the affirmative, the minister adds, Amen, or, So be it.

In Denmark and Sweden, their form of excommunication is accompanied with very severe penance. The Danish ritual informs us, that the party excommunicated, when he first appears at church, is turned out with disgrace by the clerk of the parish, in the presence of the whole congregation. However, if the excommunication be of any long continuance, he is not excluded from the privilege of attending public worship, and joining with the congregation in their sermons, and other acts of devotion; but he is obliged to sit in a place appointed, and at some distance from them: and when the minister comes down from the pulpit, the clerk before-mentioned, who admits him, conveys him out of the church again. In regard to the Swedes, their form of excommunication is equally rigid and severe. Their discipline disclaims, in the same manner as that of all the other states in which Lutheranism prevails, every thing which has the least appearance of civil punishment. For according to the doctrine of the Lutherans in general, no minister ought to confound ecclesiastical penalties, that is to say, the exclusion of any of their members out of the congregation, and their prohibition, or withholding from them the holy communion, with those punishments, which none but the civil magistrates ought to inflict.

The Lutherans baptize their children within a day or two after their birth. In case the infant should prove too weak to

Baptism. be carried to church, they baptize him at home, at which ceremony one or two godfathers must always attend. The exorcism is a ceremony still practised in some countries. Where the infant is in apparent danger of death, a layman and a midwife together may baptize it. By the ecclesiastical law of Saxony, a midwife is not permitted to baptize a dying child, till after she has found out some man to assist her. Infants who are illegitimate, are not baptized in Denmark at the same time as those who are born in wedlock. When a bastard is baptized, there is no oblation made on the altar. As to foundlings, their birth being only precarious and uncertain, they are baptized at church as other children; and although, when they are taken up, there be a billet, or note, to intimate that they have been baptized, yet, they are always baptized again, because a testimony of that nature is deemed at best but dubious. Where the infant is not in apparent danger of death, they never baptize it till it be entirely weaned from the mother's breast. To conclude, they never baptize adult fools, nor lunatics, at least, till they are restored to the free exercise of their rational faculties, and are capable of being instructed in the principles of the Christian religion. In Sweden, a father is under no obligation to attend at the baptism of his child, at least, he is not always required to be present. All legitimate children are baptized before divine service begins, but bastards after it is over.

There are baptismal fonts in some of the Lutheran churches, but not in all of them in general. In several of the Saxon churches, an angel, with a basin in his hand, descends from the ceiling by a private pulley, or some other secret spring, and presents the basin to the minister who is to baptize the child. In other places, a table is brought out of the vestry, and placed before the altar with a basin upon it.

After the preliminary questions, which are merely formal, the minister makes a discourse, by way of exhortation. After which, he exorcises the devil in the form following: Get thee hence, thou unclean spirit, and make room for the Holy Ghost. The minister, at the same time, makes the sign of the cross upon the infant, saying unto him, Receive the sign of the cross, &c. and laying his hand upon him, reads the prayers, and repeats the exorcism. At the very instant the child is baptized, the minister asks the sureties for him, If he renounces the devil and all his works, and if he believes in God the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, &c. After that, he baptizes him by a triple aspersion, in honour of the Sacred Trinity. The whole ceremony concludes with a prayer of

thanksgiving, a benediction on the child, and an exhortation to the sureties.

As to the form of confirmation observed by the Lutherans, a virgin of twelve years of age, or a youth of fourteen, is deemed duly qualified to receive the Lord's Sup- Confirmation.
per, provided they have had a liberal education.

The first time of their admission to the holy communion is either at Easter or Michaelmas. Their pious intention is published three weeks before from the pulpit, and they are accordingly instructed, and examined twice a week during that interval, by way of preparation. Their ministers explain to them the duties incumbent on a communicant, and the spiritual benefits and advantages arising from the participation of that blessed sacrament. In short, they make their confession on Easter-Monday, and receive the communion the day following, sometimes in private, and sometimes in public, with the whole congregation. Such young communicants range themselves in the form of a semi-circle, by degrees, as they rise from the altar. After that act of devotion, the minister reads a prayer, and then addressing himself to the whole congregation, acquaints them, that those youths are ready, with an audible voice, to render a satisfactory account of the grounds and principles of the religion which they profess. He examines them accordingly; and after they have fully answered all his queries, he spends some time in a suitable exhortation: the congregation sing a hymn, and then the ceremony concludes with a proper collect, and the general benediction.

The Lutheran discipline, with respect to matrimony, is exceedingly uniform and regular. Luther composed a formula at first for that ordinance, from which there Marriage ce-
remonies.
has been afterwards no very material deviation.

It begins with their bans, and in order to the consummation of a marriage, where there is no lawful impediment, the parties present themselves at church before their pastor, who asks the bridegroom whether they be mutually agreed to enter that holy state, and thereupon they join their right hands, and make an exchange of their respective rings. Then the pastor proceeds in the words, or to the purport following. A and B being desirous to enter into the holy state of matrimony before all this congregation here present, I do hereby declare them man and wife, in the name of the Father, and the Son, and the Holy Ghost, &c. After that, he reads, or pronounces extempore at the altar, several texts of scripture, which are serious exhortations to those who are married, and the whole ceremony concludes with a prayer for the blessing

of God on their future endeavours. This is the form, according to Luther's direction, and which is still observed to this day, so far as relates to the jurisdiction of the church in that particular.

In Saxony, the mechanics, and those who may be called the inferior tradesmen, go to church to be married, attended by a long train of their friends and acquaintance, with a band of musicians before them. The same custom is observed, more or less, in several other places; and a great degree of caprice and extravagance is every where blended with their nuptial ceremonies. In some of the northern provinces, as soon as the proper inquiries have been made with respect to the bridegroom, the father brings his daughter with an air of gravity to her suitor, saying to him at the same time, "I give you my daughter, that she may reverence and obey you, that she may be your wedded wife, that she may lie with you, be the keeper of your keys, and be put into possession of one third of your money and effects." In several states of Germany, notwithstanding it is customary for the parents of the new-married couple to defray the whole charges of their nuptials, yet all the guests who are invited thereto make presents to the bride, which for the most part are so valuable that the bride's relations are so far from being at any expense, that they are considerable gainers in the end.

Whenever the married couple have lived in that state for twenty-five years together, their nuptials (at least as to the external form) are revived; which second marriage is called their *silver nuptials*. If the parties have cohabited for fifty years, they then solemnize their *golden nuptials*. In the celebration both of the one and the other, the same gayety and amusements are observed as those at their first marriage. Persons of distinction, and those who are very rich, give medals to their friends at the celebration of the silver and golden nuptials.

Their burials are always attended with singular testimonies of true piety and devotion; and sometimes likewise with extraordinary pomp and magnificence. More-
Funeral ceremonies.
over, it is customary amongst them to make a funeral oration over the deceased without distinction, be the party rich or poor, of the highest or the meanest extraction. After the sermon is over an abstract of the life of the deceased is read in public. High encomiums are given of all those who have distinguished themselves by their exemplary piety; and if any of them have led loose and profligate lives, they never fail to publish the misdemeanors of the dead,

for the benefit and amendment of their surviving friends and relations. It is customary, likewise, to make funeral processions, and accompany the corpse to the grave singing all the time some select hymns, or dirges, suitable to the solemn occasion. In some places, the principal magistrates, and other persons of respectability in the city, are invited to those processions, especially if the deceased were a person of distinction; and those who accompany the corpse to the grave, receive an acknowledgment in proportion to their quality and degree.

On the day appointed for the interment of the corpse, the relations, friends, and acquaintance of the deceased, meet at his house. One or more Lutheran pastors resort likewise to the same place attended by a train of young scholars, sometimes greater and sometimes less, with their masters at the head of them. These youth, in the first place, sing two or three hymns or dirges before the door of the deceased; after which they march in the front of the procession; having a large crucifix, or at least a cross carried before them. An inferior clerk, or some young scholar appointed for that purpose, marches close by the side of the corpse with a small cross, which is afterwards fixed in that part of the church-yard, where the body was interred. The relations and friends of the deceased follow the corpse; the men first and the women after them. During the procession, the bells are generally tolled, out of respect and complaisance to the deceased, and several hymns and other dirges are sung as they march along. It is customary likewise, to open the coffin at the grave, and to take a last farewell, a last melancholy view of their departed friend, and afterwards to nail his coffin up, singing at the same time a short hymn suitable to the occasion. After which the minister reads a proper collect, and pronounces the benediction. In the next place, the procession enters the church, where there is generally a funeral sermon, either out of respect to the deceased, at the request of his friends, or by his own immediate direction.

As soon as the corpse is let down into the grave, the minister throws a small quantity of earth upon it three times successively: at the first he says, *Of the dust of the ground wast thou born*: at the second, *To dust shalt thou return*: and at the third, *Out of the dust shalt thou rise again*. After that, the bearers fill up the grave. The funeral oration is pronounced immediately after the interment, if the relations be willing to defray the expense of it, or if the deceased have left any legacy or devise in his will for that purpose.

SEC. II.—CHURCH OF ENGLAND.*

THE church of England dates its origin from the time of the Reformation, when Henry VIII. shook off the pope's authority, and took upon himself the title of Origin. "*Head of the Church*," as he had been previously dignified by his holiness with that of "*Defender of the Faith*." The last of these titles, which are hereditary in the Crown of England, was obtained as a reward for a book the king had written on the Seven Sacraments against Luther's book, "*Of the Captivity of Babylon*." The first title was an assumed one; but soon obtained legal sanction by the consent of the nation at large; taken up because the pope refused to sanction Henry's divorce from Queen Catherine, his affections having been transferred to Anne Boleyn. The Archbishop of Canterbury, who took upon himself to annul the former marriage, was solemnly condemned by the pope; and Henry, out of revenge, annulled his connexion with, and threw off his obedience to, the papal see. He became supreme head of the church himself, and he may be said to have been the founder of the church of England. Its principles, however, are grounded on those of the Reformation, having, in many respects, a resemblance to the Lutheran tenets and practice.

The religious *tenets* or *doctrines* of this church are to be found in the book of Homilies, consisting of short moral and Doctrines. doctrinal discourses, and in the Thirty-Nine Articles, which, with the three Creeds and Catechism, are inserted in the Book of Common Prayer. Concerning some of the doctrines professed by the church of England, her members are not agreed: a very great majority of the clergy insisting upon it that the church is not calvinistic, in regard to the doctrine of predestination, irresistible grace, and the final perseverance of the saints; whilst a very respectable and increasing portion of the clergy and laity maintain, with great confidence, that the 17th article roundly and plainly asserts the great and important doctrine of predestination, as taught by Calvin and the first reformers. The warm, not to say acrimonious, disputes which this difference of construction put upon the articles has occasioned, have tended to increase the number of dissenters.

* For a brief notice of the Episcopal Church in the United States, see the conclusion of this section

Two archbishops are at the head of the English hierarchy, those of Canterbury and of York both style themselves primates; and in order to reconcile the difference, it was decided, that the archbishop of Canterbury should be called *primate of all England*, and the archbishop of York only *primate of England*. The oath of supremacy is taken by the king as head of the church, and as such on the day of his coronation, he puts on a surplice, a stole, and a dalmatic. When a bishopric becomes vacant, the canons of the cathedral give notice of it to the king, and desire his leave to choose another. His majesty, at the same time that he sends the conge d'elire, recommends the individual whom it is his will they should elect; and then the dean and chapter choose the person so named. The bishop so chosen is consecrated, installed, renders homage to the king, takes the oath, and pays the first fruits. The other prerogatives which the king enjoys, as head of the church, are, to make ordinances respecting ceremonies and exterior rites, with the advice of the ecclesiastical commissioners, or of the metropolitan; to call or prorogue the convocation; and to enact the decrees of synods into laws. But all this still leaves him in the state and condition of a lay head, and the profession of faith says, that the supreme governing of all the states of the kingdom, whether ecclesiastical or spiritual, in all causes whatever, belongs to him, yet so that he is not invested with a power to preach the word of God, or administer the sacraments.

The bishop is superior to a priest, and a priest to a deacon. The essential office of a deacon is to see that the wants of the poor be supplied, to assist the priest (or minister) at the communion service, to bless those who present themselves to be married, to baptize, to bury the dead, to preach, and to read to the people the holy scriptures, or the homilies. Their ordination consists first in a sermon or exhortation preached to them, which being concluded, the archdeacon, or whoever officiates in his stead, presents them to the bishop, who inquires of the said archdeacon, whether he has examined them and found them deserving; he then directs his speech to the congregation present, both to know if there be any existing impediment to the election, and to recommend the candidates to the prayers of the congregation. After some prayers and litanies, the third chapter of St. Paul's first epistle to Timothy, from v. 8 to the end of that chapter, is read to the deacons, or chapter vi. of the Acts of the Apostles, from v. 2 to 8. Then they take the oath of supre-

English Hierarchy

Ordination of Deacons.

macy, and amongst several questions put to them, the bishop asks them, whether they have in them an interior call from the Holy Ghost to take upon them the office of a deacon. The answer to this question being made in the affirmative, the bishop puts the New Testament into their hands, and gives them authority to read and preach the word of God to the faithful. He receives the communion himself, and gives it to all whom he has ordained. The whole ceremony is concluded with a prayer suitable to the occasion, and the blessing.

The ordination of priests consists of prayers, exhortations, and imposition of hands. By the constitutions of the year 1603, the time appointed for giving orders is on those
 Ordination of
 Priests. Sundays which follow the Ember weeks during the service, in the cathedral or parochial churches

where the bishops reside, in the presence of the archdeacon, the dean, and two prebendaries, or at least of four grave persons, who must be masters of arts, and have lawful power to preach. They are only as witnesses to the ordination, which belongs solely to the bishop; he alone has authority to say to those who are ordained, "receive the Holy Ghost;" the other four only pray with the bishops, and lay their hands upon the ordained, with this difference, that, amongst the English, as with the Catholics, the imposition of the bishop's hands denotes his power and authority to ordain, whereas that of the witnesses is only a mark of their approbation and consent to their being admitted to the brotherhood, if that expression may be used. To become a priest, it is necessary to be made first a deacon; but both orders may be received on one and the same day. After the examen, and the exhortation which is immediately before the communion service, the epistle is read, Acts, chap. xx. from v. 17 to 36, and if both orders be given on the same day, the 3d chap. of the first epistle to Timothy is added. The reading of the gospel follows, out of the last chapter of St. Matthew, from v. 11 to the end of that chapter; or out of St. John chap. xx. from v. 10 to 24. Then the *veni creator* is sung or read. The rest differs but little from the deacon's ordination. The congregation is desired to join in mental prayer for the happy success of this ceremony; silence is maintained for some short time; then the bishop prays aloud, and immediately lays his hands, and the priests then present lay theirs upon those who are ordained, and who are kneeling. The bishop uses at the same time this form, so much found fault with by the puritans or dissenters: "Receive the Holy Ghost. Sins shall be forgiven to all those to whom you forgive them, &c. Be faithful dispensers of the word of God and of the sa-

craments," &c. This being said, he puts the Bible into their hands.

The bishop is, under Christ, according to the doctrine of the church of England, the first pastor of the church. Inferior ministers are only his deputies; when he is absent, the priest may bless the people, but whenever he is present at the divine service, it belongs to him to pronounce the blessing. Ordination of
Bishops and
Archbishops.

There are two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops in England; they enjoy the dignity of barons, and take place before those of the laity; so the bishop of London, being the first bishop, is likewise the first baron; all are peers of the realm, and sit in the House of Lords, except the bishop of the Isle of Man, who is named by and holds of a subject. The archbishops are called Your Grace, which title is also bestowed on dukes. The bishops are styled right reverend fathers in God.

At the consecration of bishops, or archbishops, the 3d chap. of St. Paul's first epistle to Timothy, from v. 1 to 8, is read; then some verses out of chap. x. or xxi. of St. John's Gospel; the creed is said; the bishop elected is presented by two other bishops to the archbishop of the province, or to another bishop officiating for him. Right reverend father in Christ, they say, we present to you this pious and learned man, to be consecrated bishop. The king's order for his consecration is produced and read openly. The bishop elect takes the oath of supremacy, and that of obedience to his metropolitan, which last is omitted at the consecration of an archbishop. The consecrator moves the congregation to pray, saying to them,—Brethren, it is written in the gospel of St. Luke, that our Saviour Christ continued the whole night in prayer, before he did choose and send forth his twelve apostles. It is written also in the Acts of the Apostles, that the disciples did fast and pray before they laid hands on Paul and Barnabas and sent them forth. Let us, therefore, following the example of our Saviour Christ and his apostles, first fall to prayer, &c. Then the litany is said; and after this passage, That it may please thee to illuminate all bishops, &c. the following prayer is inserted: That it may please thee to bless this our brother elected, and to send thy grace upon him, that he may duly execute the office whereunto he is called, to the edifying of thy church, &c. The people answer, We beseech thee to hear us, &c. The litany ends with a prayer, after which the archbishop, sitting in his chair, says to him that is to be consecrated, "Brother, forasmuch as the holy scripture and the ancient

canons command, that we should not be hasty in laying on hands, and admitting any person to government in the church of Christ, which he has purchased with no less price than the effusion of his own blood; before I admit you to this administration, I will examine you," &c. The question ends with a prayer, which is followed by the hymn of the Holy Ghost, or the *veni creator*, said or sung, at the end of which, the archbishop says another long prayer. Then the archbishop and bishops present, lay their hands upon the head of the elected bishop, the archbishop saying: Receive the Holy Ghost; and remember that thou stir up the grace of God which is given thee by this imposition of our hands, &c. Still keeping one hand on the head of the bishop elect, with the other he delivers him the Bible, saying, Give heed unto reading, exhortation, and doctrine, think upon the things contained in this book, &c. Be to the flock of Christ a shepherd, not a wolf; hold up the weak; be so merciful; so minister discipline, &c. Then the archbishop and the new bishops, with others, receive the communion: and the whole ceremony concludes with a prayer by way of collect to desire Almighty God to pour down his blessing on the new bishop.

English bishops have their own vicars, and officials, in each diocese; but the officials are more known in England by the name of chancellors. These are the true and chief officials, but there are some commissioners who are often mistaken for them. Their archdeacons, who in ancient times were only the first among deacons, are now in the English church above priests. Bishops are called reverend, archbishops most reverend, archdeacons venerable: common priests have no title bestowed upon them. The archdeacon's chief function is to visit the diocese by procuration in default of the bishop or vicar, at least once in three years.

The chief ornament, by which churchmen are distinguished from the laity, is the surplice: the ministers of the church of England are to put it on whenever they administer any sacrament, and on several other occasions, the particulars of which we need not mention. Bishops, deans, canons in cathedral churches, wear a cope besides the surplice, and are to put it on at the communion service, administration of sacraments, or any other religious function, which is to be performed with solemnity.

No one can be made a deacon before twenty-three, nor a priest before twenty-four, nor a bishop before thirty. Some pastors, either priests or ministers, have the title of rectors, as belonging to such churches, which at the Reformation, were

independent of any monastery. Others are only vicars, but for life. Lastly, some are barely curates, without any benefice, and receive their scanty salary from the rectors or bishops.

The convocation of the clergy is a kind of parliament, the archbishops and bishops are the upper house; the lower is composed of the inferior clergy, viz. twenty-six deans, sixty archdeacons, five hundred and seventy-six canons, besides curates and deacons. They meet upon the concerns of the church, tithes, raising taxes, ecclesiastical laws, which must afterwards be approved by the king and parliament. They hold likewise national synods, which keep an exact correspondence in all their deliberations, and make no absolute definition, but with a unanimous consent.

The customs established in the performance of divine service, and appointed by the English liturgy, are; that all priests and deacons are required to say daily the morning and evening prayers. The order of both Divine Service. is the same. They begin with several passages of scripture, which the minister says aloud. These passages are followed by an exhortation to prepare for the general confession of sins, which is said kneeling, by the minister and the whole congregation: this ceremony is as ancient as St. Basil, and was not then peculiar to his diocese, but universally practised in the whole church. The absolution is pronounced by the priest standing, the people still kneeling; for receiving forgiveness requires a humble posture, but forgiving shows authority. The church of England uses three different forms of absolution, one in the morning and evening prayer, another at the visitation of the sick, and a third at the communion service. After the absolution, the priest and congregation, all kneeling, say the Lord's prayer, which is followed by some responses, a psalm, some lessons out of the Old Testament, as set down in the calendar at the beginning of the liturgy, the singing or reciting the Te Deum or Benedicite omnia; another lesson out of the New Testament, a hymn, or a psalm; the creed said or sung, to which the people stand; the Lord's prayer a second time; several responses, three collects, a prayer for the king and queen, another for the royal family, a third for the clergy, St. Chrysostom's prayer, and the blessing. The rubric says, that the minister must stand when he reads the lessons, and turn himself towards the congregation, that he may be heard the better: this is very rational, for those lessons, the decalogue, &c. are an instruction to the people: but when he addresses himself to God by

prayer, by saying or singing a psalm, or by confession, he must then turn from the people and look towards the upper and of the chancel, which is the chief and most reverential part of the church. Hymns and psalms are sung or said in a standing posture, as an evident token that the hearts of the people are raised to God with joy: the same situation is kept at the singing or saying the creed, to show how ready they are to make an open profession of their faith, to give an account of it, to justify and defend it. Betwixt the creed and the Lord's prayer repeated a second time, the priest says, The Lord be with you. The people answer, And with your spirit. We shall not trouble our readers with the various expositions of the oremus, the short litany, and the responses: but we cannot omit, that the collects are said to be so named because the priest said them when the whole assembly was met, or because the devotion of all the faithful was collected or joined to offer that prayer to God, or because the priest unites several petitions into one, or lastly, because it is a collection of several short sentences of scripture.

The prayers, collects, and lessons, often vary, on some days, as Christmas, Epiphany, &c. The Athanasian creed is said or sung instead of that of the apostles or of Nice. Sunday morning, Wednesday, and Friday, the long litany is said or sung. Particular prayers are said likewise on special occasions, as for rain, for fair weather, for a time of famine, or great dearth, for success in war, against popular commotions, epidemic or contagious distempers; every day also in ember weeks, for those who are to be ordained, for the parliament whilst it sits; which prayers are all either to obtain mercy from God, or to give him thanks for favours received.

Sunday is a day which all Christians keep with great solemnity; but none more than the English; the gravity, decency, regularity, and outward devotion, which are apparent throughout the kingdom on that day, are worthy of commendation.

The communion is one of the principal sacraments of the church of England, for which purpose the altar, for this name is often given by the members of the church of England to the communion table, ought to have a clean white linen cloth upon it, and to stand in the body of the church, or in the chancel, where morning and evening prayers are appointed to be said. At all other times the said table is covered with a silk carpet, and set in a decent place altar-wise. The priest, standing at the north side of the table, says the Lord's prayer, with a collect,

Administra-
tion of Sacra-
ments.

then rehearses distinctly the ten commandments, after each, the people kneeling, say, "Lord have mercy on us, and incline our hearts to keep this law." This is followed by a collect for the king, which the priest says standing; the collect of the day, the epistle, and gospel, at which last the people stand, as they do likewise at the singing or reciting the Nicene or Constantinopolitan creed, which is done immediately after the gospel. Then the curate declares unto the people what holydays and fasting days are in the week following to be observed; and, if occasion be, publishes the bans of matrimony, reads briefs, citations, and excommunications, and nothing is proclaimed or published in the church during the time of divine service but by the minister; nor by him, any thing but what is prescribed in the rules, or enjoined by the king, or by the ordinary of the place.

Then follows the sermon, which being ended, alms are taken for the poor, or other purposes; this is followed by prayers and exhortations, after which the priest stands up before the table, and having so ordered the bread and wine that he may with the more readiness and decency break the bread before the people, and take the cup into his hands, says the prayer of consecration, which begins the third part of the communion service; the wording of it is very remarkable, and runs thus: "Hear us, O merciful Father, and grant that we, receiving these thy creatures of bread and wine, according to Jesus Christ's holy institution, in remembrance of his death and passion, may be partakers of his most blessed body and blood, who in the same night that he was betrayed took bread, and when he had given thanks, he brake it, and gave it to his disciples, saying, take, eat, this is my body which is given for you, do this in remembrance of me. Likewise after supper, he took the cup, and when he had given thanks, he gave it to them saying, Drink ye all of this, for this is my blood of the New Testament, which is shed for you, for the remission of sins. Do this as oft as ye shall drink it in remembrance of me."

The priest first receives the communion in both kinds himself, then proceeds to deliver the same to the bishops, priests, and deacons (if any be present;) and after that, to the people also in order into their hands, all meekly kneeling. They receive it in their hands, because the custom of receiving it in their mouths from the priest's hand, savours too much of transubstantiation.

The priest says a prayer when he gives the bread, and another when the cup is given to any one. If the conse-

crated bread or wine be exhausted before all have communicated, the priest is to consecrate more. If, on the contrary, there remains any when all have communicated, the minister returns to the Lord's table, and reverently places upon it what remains of the consecrated elements, covering the same with a clean linen cloth. Here begins the fourth and last part of the communion service. The Lord's prayer is said by the minister, the people repeating after him every petition; then follows another form of thanksgiving, after which, "Glory to be to God on high," a hymn to which antiquity has given the appellation of angelical. The whole service is concluded, by the priest, (or bishop, if he be present,) dismissing the congregation with a blessing.

The rubric says, that it is most convenient baptism should not be administered, but upon Sundays, and other holydays,

Baptism. when the greatest number of people are assembled; as well for that the congregation there present may testify the receiving of them that be newly baptized into the number of Christ's church; as also because in the baptism of infants, every man present may be put in remembrance of his own profession made to God in his baptism, or that made for them by their godfathers or godmothers. Nevertheless (if necessity so require) children may be baptized on any other day. Every male child must have two godfathers and one godmother; and every female one godfather and two godmothers; who, with the children, must be ready at the font immediately after the last lesson of the morning, or evening prayer. The priest coming to the font, which is then to be filled with pure water, and standing there, asks the usual question, exhorts the people to pray, says two prayers for the child, reads a gospel, (Mark x. 13, and following,) explains it, gives God thanks, tells the godfathers and godmothers their duty, receives their renouncing the devil, and repeats with them the profession of faith; after which, and a few more prayers, he takes the child into his hands, desires the godfathers and godmothers to name the child; and then naming it after them, he sprinkles it with the water, saying, N. I baptize thee, &c. The ceremony ends with the minister's signing the child with the cross, saying the Lord's prayer, giving thanks to God, and a second charge to the godfathers and godmothers.

As to the ministration of baptism to those who are of riper years, and able to answer for themselves; first, they are examined whether they be sufficiently instructed in the principles of the Christian religion; then, they are exhorted to pre-

pare themselves with prayers and fastings for the receiving of this holy sacrament. If they be found fit, the godfathers and godmothers present them at the font on the day, and at the time appointed. The godfathers and godmothers are not to answer, as they did in infant baptism, for the persons christened, in quality of their spiritual fathers or mothers; they rather are present as witnesses only. The priest directs his discourse and exhortations to the persons baptized, prays for them, and with them; they themselves renounce the devil and all his works, the vain pomp and glory of this world, with all covetous desires of the same, and the carnal desires of the flesh. They make their profession of faith; after which, and some few prayers said by the minister, he takes each person to be baptized by the right hand, and placing him conveniently by the font, he dips him in the water, or pours water upon him, saying, N. I baptize thee, &c. Then he receives them into the church, signs them with the cross, gives thanks to God, and ends with a short exhortation, first to the godfathers and godmothers, then to the person baptized; recommending it to him to be confirmed by the bishop so soon after his baptism as conveniently may be, that so he may be admitted to the holy communion.

In the church of England, as amongst Catholics, the bishops are sole ministers of the religious ceremony of confirmation. The short catechism, which every person is to learn before he is brought to be confirmed by the bishop, is to be seen in the book of common prayer. Confirmation. The church of England orders, that, for the instruction of the faithful beginners, "The curate of every parish shall diligently upon Sundays and holydays, after the second lesson at evening prayer, openly in the church instruct and examine so many children of his parish sent unto him, in the catechism. All fathers, mothers, masters, or mistresses, shall cause their children, servants, and apprentices, who have not learned their catechism, to come to the church at the time appointed, and obediently to hear, and be ordered by the curate, until such time as they have learned all that is appointed for them to learn. The children who are sufficiently instructed, shall be brought to the bishop, and every one shall have a godfather or a godmother, as a witness of their confirmation. All being placed and standing in order before the bishop, he or some other minister appointed by him shall read what is called, the preface of Confirmation, which briefly explains the nature and end of it; then he makes them renew and confirm the promises which were made for them by their

godfathers and godmothers at baptism, and prays for them, that they may receive the gifts of the Holy Ghost; then all of them kneeling in order before the bishop, he lays his hand upon the head of every one severally, says another prayer, the Lord's prayer, and two collects, and dismisses them by giving his blessing.

According to the ritual of the church of England, the bans of all those who are to be married, must be published in the church three several Sundays or holydays, in the time of divine service, immediately before the sentence of the offertory. The form of asking is too well known to require being set down. If the persons who are to be married dwell in divers parishes, the bans must be asked in both parishes; and the curate of the one parish shall not solemnize matrimony, without a certificate of the bans being thrice asked from the curate of the other parish. At the day and time appointed for the solemnization of matrimony, the persons to be married shall come into the body of the church, with their friends and neighbours, and there standing together, the man on the right hand, and the woman on the left, the priest reads an exhortation on the duty, condition, and chastity of a married state; then another particularly directed to the persons who are to be married. At which day of marriage, if any man do allege or declare any impediment, why they may not be coupled together in matrimony, by God's law, or the laws of the realm, and will be bound, and sufficient sureties with him, to the parties, or else put in a caution (to the full value of such charges, as the persons to be married do hereby sustain) to prove his allegation; then the solemnization must be deferred until such time as the truth be tried. If no impediment be alleged, then the curate asks their mutual consent; which being declared, they give their troth to each other, taking alternately each other by the right hand, and saying, "I, N. take thee N. to be my wedded wife, (or husband,) to have and to hold, from this day forward, for better, for worse, for richer, for poorer, in sickness and in health, to love and to cherish (the wife says to love, cherish, and obey) till death us do part, according to God's holy ordinance, and thereto I plight thee my troth." Then they again loose their hands, and the man shall give unto the woman a ring, laying the same upon the book, with the accustomed dues to the priest and clerk. And the priest taking the ring, shall deliver it unto the man to put upon the fourth finger of the woman's left hand, and the man, taught by the priest, shall say, "With this ring I thee wed, with my body I thee worship," &c. Both



Church of England Marriage. p. 426.



Church of England Funeral. p. 428.

kneel down, the minister says a prayer, joins their hands together, and adds a blessing; then going to the Lord's table, say or sing a psalm, which being ended, the man and the woman kneeling before the Lord's table, the priest standing at the table, says a litany, followed by some prayers, and an instruction concerning the duties of man and wife, and so concludes. Only the rubric adds, that it is convenient the new-married persons should receive the holy communion at the time of their marriage, or at the first opportunity after their marriage.

The last religious ceremony of the English liturgy is the burial of the dead. In the order for that service, it is noted, first, "That it is not for any that die unbaptized, or excommunicated, or have laid violent hands Burial of the Dead. upon themselves." The priest and clerk, meeting the corpse at the entrance of the church-yard, and going before it either into the church or towards the grave, say, "I am the resurrection and the life," &c. (John, chap. xi. ver. 25,) with some other sentences of scripture. In the church some suitable psalms are read or sung, with a lesson adapted to that ceremony. When they are come to the grave, and are preparing every thing to put the body into the earth, the priest and his clerk say or sing, "Man that is born of a woman," &c. Earth is then cast upon the body, and some prayers are said, in one of which God is desired to grant "that we, with all those that are departed in the true faith, may have our perfect consummation and bliss, both in body and soul, in glory."

As soon as any one has breathed his last, the minister of the parish, and those who have in charge to visit dead bodies, must have notice given them; this was ordered to be done immediately after the great plague which Civil rites of Funerals. raged in London in the year 1665, that it might be found out if any distemper proved contagious, and proper precautions taken to prevent its spreading. This visit is commonly performed by two women; the clerk of the parish receives their attestation, and an abstract of it is printed every week, by which the public are informed how many died in the week, of what distemper, or by what accident. An act of parliament, made for the encouragement of the woollen manufactory, ordains that all corpses shall be buried in flannel, without any allowance for linen, but the flannel may be as fine as they think fit. Those shrouds are either bespoke or bought ready made, and most linen drapers have some by them of all sizes and prices. The corpse being washed very clean, and shaved if it be that of a man, they put on it a flannel shirt, the sleeves of which are ruffled and plaited, with another tufted piece of

the same stuff which covers the opening of the shirt upon the breast. The shirt must be above half a foot longer than the corpse when extended at full length, that the feet of the deceased may be put into it as in a bag, which when performed it is tied with woollen, so as to look like a tuft. They add to this a cap, with a large chin-cloth tied to the cap, a cravat and gloves, all woollen. Some put a large quantity of bran at the bottom of the coffin. Instead of a cap the women have head-clothes with a forehead-cloth. Some coffins are exceedingly fine. When the corpse is in it, they make a second visit, to see whether it be all in flannel, and no linen or even thread, except woollen, employed about it. The body lies so three or four days, and all that time is allowed to provide mourning and prepare for the funeral.

The palls are provided by the undertakers; some of black velvet, some of black cloth, bordered either with white satin, or linen, or taffety, about a foot long. It is so large, that it covers not only the coffin, but likewise the men who carry it upon their shoulders, and still hangs low enough to be supported by the pall-bearers, either men or women, according to the sex of the person who is to be buried, and they have gloves, hat-bands, and sometimes scarfs, black or white, given them. When every thing is ready, two men, called mutes, go first, and they are immediately followed by the corpse and pall-bearers; the chief mourners and other persons invited, two and two, close the procession. Generally they go into the church, in the middle of which, the body being placed upon two tressels, the service for the dead appointed for that occasion is said. If the body be not buried in the church, they carry it to the church-yard belonging to it, and put it into the ground before the whole company, who seldom depart till the earth be again thrown in.

In respect to the Episcopal Church in the United States, it may be briefly stated in this place, that in her rites and ceremonies she copies those of the mother church in England, with those necessary variations, which arise from a different form of civil government, under which its members live, &c. The English common prayer book is adopted, with the omission of the Athanasian creed, and some other alterations, to conform it to the peculiar state of the church. Subscription to the articles is not required by candidates for holy orders. The number of bishops is fifteen; the number of their clergymen is estimated at five thousand and ninety-six; and their churches at nine hundred and twenty-two. The episcopal establishment in the United States has no archbishops, nor lord bishops, archdeacons, deans, prebends, canons, nor vicars. The bishops are elect

ed by the convention of the diocess. Their bishops have no episcopal palaces, but dwell in their own hired houses; nor episcopal revenues, being pastors of congregations, as are the other clergy, and, like them, supported by the contributions of those who enjoy their instructions. When they travel through their diocess, the churches they visit pay their expenses. The bishops have no patronage, nor can they, by individual authority, appoint or remove any minister. No person has the gift of "parish" or "living;" it depends on the choice of the people. Some churches leave the appointment of the minister to the vestrymen, who are annually selected by the pew holders; others select him by the ballot of the whole congregation. It is entirely left to the clergymen who shall be admitted to the ordinances: but their discipline varies in the different states. This church is governed by a general convention, which sits once in three years, divided into an upper and lower house; the former is composed of the bishops of the different states, and the latter of a portion of the clergy and laity from the several diocesses. All motions may originate in either house; although the concurrence of the majority of both must be obtained before they pass into a law.

SEC. III.—KIRK OF SCOTLAND.*

The conversion of the Scots to the Christian faith began through the ministry of Paladius, about the year 430, and from the first establishment of Christianity in that country till the Reformation in the reign of Mary, Historical Incidents. mother of James I. and of Mary I. of England, their church government was episcopacy; but the Presbyterian discipline was not finally established in Scotland until the reign of King William and Mary, A. D. 1689, when episcopacy was totally abolished. The Westminster Confession of Faith was then received as the standard of the national creed; which all ministers, and principals and professors in universities, are obliged to subscribe as the confession of their faith, before receiving induction into office.

The church of Scotland is remarkable for its uncommon simplicity of worship; it possesses no liturgy, no altar, no instrumental music, no surplice, no fixed canonical vestment of any kind. Worship.— It condemns the Ministerial worship paid to saints, and it observes no festivity, &c.

* The word *Kirk* is of Saxon origin, and signifies *Church*; or, according to others, it is a contraction of the Greek word, meaning the *House of God*.

tival days. Its ministers enjoy a parity of rank and of authority ; it enforces that all ministers, being ambassadors of Christ, are equal in commission ; that there is no order in the church as established by the Saviour, superior to presbyters ; and that bishop and presbyter, though different words, are of the same import. It acknowledges no earthly head : its judicatories are quite distinct from, and independent of, any civil judicatory ; insomuch, indeed, that the decisions of the one are often contrary to those of the other, yet both remain unaffected and unaltered. When, for example, a clergyman has been presented to a parish by a patron, and induction and ordination have followed on that presentation, if afterwards it be found that the patron, who had given the presentation, has not that right, and that it belongs to another, the clergyman may be ejected as to all the temporalities of the office ; but *quoad sacra*, he may continue minister of the parish, and exercise all the sacred functions : and though a new presentee may obtain a right to the civil endowments of the benefice, he can perform none of the sacred duties, while the other chooses to avail himself of this privilege.

There are four ecclesiastical judicatories,—namely, the Kirk Session, the Presbytery, the Synod, and the General Assembly, from each of which there is a power of appeal. Indicatories. to the other ; but the decision of the General Assembly is supreme.

The lowest court is the Kirk Session, which is composed of the minister of the parish, who is the moderator or president of it, and a number of the most grave and respectable laymen, members of the congregation. Their number varies in different parishes, five or six being about the average number ; and their services are entirely gratuitous. They are something like church wardens in England, only they have a spiritual jurisdiction, as it is a part of their duty to visit the sick, &c. The Kirk Session takes cognizance of cases of scandal, such as fornication, sabbath breaking, profane swearing. It also manages the funds of the poor, a duty in which it formerly was assisted by deacons, a class of men inferior to elders, as they had no spiritual jurisdiction, but not being found necessary, they are consequently disused.

The Presbytery, which is the court next in dignity, is composed of the ministers of a certain district, with an elder from each parish. The number of presbyteries is seventy-eight. Their chief duty consists in the management of such matters as concern the church within their respective bounds. But they may originate any matter,

and bring it under the view of the Synod or General Assembly. They have also the superintendence of education, within their bounds, such as the induction of teachers, and the examination of schools.

The Synod is the next intermediate court. There are fifteen synods, each consisting of the clergymen of a certain number of presbyteries, with elders, as in presbyteries. Presbyteries meet generally once a-month; Synod. synods twice a-year, though some remote synods, such as that of Argyle, only once.

The General Assembly is the last and supreme court, and meets yearly in the month of May, in Edinburgh, and continues its sitting for twelve days. The king presides by his representative, who is always a General Assembly. nobleman, and is denominated *the Lord High Commissioner*. The General Assembly is a representative court, consisting of 200 members, representing presbyteries, and 156 elders representing burghs or presbyteries, and five ministers or elders representing universities,—making altogether 361 members. They choose a moderator or president, out of their own number, distinct from the Royal Commissioner, the duty of the latter consisting merely in convening and dissolving the court, and in forming the medium of communication between it and the throne. The moderator is now always a clergyman, though previously to 1688 laymen sometimes held that office.

The duties of the Scotch clergy are numerous and laborious. They officiate regularly in the public *worship of God*; and, in general, they must go through this duty twice every Sunday, (exclusively of other occasional appearances,) delivering every Sunday a Duties of the Scotch Clergy. *lecture*, and a *sermon*, with *prayers*. It is also expected, throughout Scotland, that the prayers and discourses shall be of the minister's own composition; and the prayers, in all cases, and the discourses in most instances, are delivered without the use of papers. They are expected to perform the alternate duties of *examining* their people from the scriptures and catechisms of the church, and of visiting them from house to house, with prayers and exhortations. This is done commonly once in the year, being omitted only in those cases in which the ministers deem it impracticable, or not acceptable, or at least not necessary.—The charge of the poor devolves, in a very particular manner, on the clergy, and in them also is vested the superintendence of all schools within their bounds.

Baptism in this church is practised by none but ministers,

Baptism. who do it by sprinkling; and whether performed in private or in public, it is almost always preceded by a sermon.

The Lord's Supper is not administered so frequently in Scotland as in some other places. Some time before this takes

place, it is announced from the pulpit. The week before, the kirk sessions meets, and draws up a list of all the communicants in the parish, according to the minister's examination-book, and the testimony of the elders and deacons. According to this list, tickets are delivered to each communicant, if desired, and the ministers and elders also give tickets to strangers who bring sufficient testimonials. None are allowed to communicate without such tickets, which are produced at the table. Those who never received, are instructed by the minister, and by themselves, in the nature of the sacraments, and taught what is the proper preparation thereunto. The Wednesday or Thursday before there is a solemn fast, and on the Saturday there are two preparatory sermons. On Sunday morning, after singing and prayer as usual, the minister of the parish preaches a suitable sermon; and when the ordinary worship is ended, he in the name of Jesus Christ forbids the unworthy to approach, and invites the penitent to come and receive the sacrament. Then he goes into the body of the church, where one or two tables, according to its width, are placed, reaching from one end to the other, covered with a white linen cloth, and seats on both sides for the communicants. The minister places himself at the end or middle of the table. After a short discourse, he reads the institution, and blesses the elements; then he breaks the bread, and distributes it and the wine to those that are next him, who transmit them to their neighbours; the elders and deacons attending to serve, and see that the whole is performed with decency and order. Whilst these communicate, the minister discourses on the nature of the sacrament; and the whole is concluded with singing and prayer. The minister then returns to the pulpit, and preaches a sermon. The morning-service ended, the congregation are dismissed for an hour; after which the usual afternoon worship is performed. On the Monday morning, there is public worship with two sermons; and these, properly speaking, close the communion-service. No private communions are allowed in Scotland.

Marriage is solemnized nearly after the manner of the church of England, with the exception of the ring, which is

deemed a great relic of "popery." By the laws of Scotland, the marriage-knot may be tied with-

out any ceremony of a religious nature: a simple promise in the presence of witnesses, or a known previous co-habitation, being sufficient to bind the obligation. That most ridiculous, often immoral, and almost always injurious practice, of marrying at *Gretna-Green*, is still in use, where a blacksmith performs the ceremony according to the rites of the church!

The Funeral ceremony is performed in total silence. The corpse is carried to the grave and there interred without a word being spoken on the occasion.

Dr. Evans, in his usual liberal strain, gives the following account of the *Seceders*.

“Dissenters from the kirk, or church of Scotland, call themselves *Seceders*; for, as the term Dissenter comes from the Latin word *dissentio*, to differ, so the appellation Seceder is derived from another Latin word, *secedo*, to separate or to withdraw from any body of men with which we may have been united. The secession arose from various circumstances, which were conceived to be great defections from the established church of Scotland. The Seceders are rigid Calvinists, rather austere in their manners, and severe in their discipline. Through a difference as to civil matters, they are broken down into *Burghers* and *Anti-burghers*. Of these two classes the latter are the most confined in their sentiments, and associate therefore the least with any other body of Christians. The Seceders originated under two brothers, Ralph and Ebenezer Erskine, of Sterling, about the year 1730. It is worthy of observation, that the Rev. George Whitefield, in one of his visits to Scotland, was solemnly reprobated by the Seceders, because he refused to confine his itinerant labours wholly to them. The reason assigned for this monopolization was, that they were exclusively God’s people! Mr. Whitefield smartly replied, that they had, therefore, the less need of his services, for his aim was to turn sinners from the error and wickedness of their ways, by preaching among them glad tidings of great joy!

“The Burgess’ oath, concerning which the Seceders differed, is administered in several of the royal boroughs of Scotland, and runs thus: ‘I protest before God and your lordships, that I profess and allow with my heart the true religion presently professed within this realm, and authorized by the laws thereof; I shall abide thereat and defend the same to my life’s end, renouncing the Roman religion called papistry.’ The Messrs. Erskine and others maintained there was no inconsistency in Seceders taking this oath, because the established religion was still the true religion, in spite of the faults attaching to it, and

hence were called Burghers. Messrs. Moncrieff, and others, thought the swearing to the religion as professed and authorized was approving the corruptions, therefore the oath was inconsistent and not to be taken; hence anti-burghers. The kirk of Scotland, both parties say, still perseveres in a course of defection from her professed principles, and therefore the secession continues, and is increasing to the present day. (See an Historical account of the Rise and Progress of the Secession, by the late Rev. John Brown, of Haddington.) The Seceders are strict Presbyterians, having their respective associate synods, and are to be found not only in Scotland, but also in Ireland and in the United States of America. Both classes have had amongst them ministers of considerable learning and piety.

"There is also a species of Dissenters from the church of Scotland called *Relief*, whose only difference from the Kirk is, the choosing of their own pastors. They arose in 1752, and are respectable as to numbers and ability. (See a Compendious View of the Religious System maintained by the Synod of Relief, by P. Hutchinson; and also Historical Sketches of the Relief Church, &c. by J. Smith.) The Relief are Calvinists as well as Presbyterians, but liberal in their views, admitting to their communion pious Christians of every denomination. They revere the union of faith and charity."^{*}

SEC. IV.—ENGLISH AND AMERICAN PRESBYTERIANS.

The appellation *Presbyterian* is in England appropriated to a large denomination of dissenters, who have no attachment

to the Scotch mode of church government, any more than to episcopacy amongst us, and therefore to this body of Christians the term *Presbyterian* in its original sense is improperly applied. This misapplication has occasioned many wrong notions, and should be rectified. English Presbyterians, as they are called, adopt nearly the same mode of church government with the Independents. Their chief difference from the Independents is, that they are less attached to Calvinism, and consequently admit a greater latitude of religious sentiment. It may be added, that their mode of admitting members into communion differs from that commonly practised among the Presbyterians.

Distinguishing characteristics of the English Presbyterians.

Dr. Doddridge in his "Lectures" has this paragraph on the

* See Dr. Evans's Sketches.

subject: "Those who hold every pastor to be as a bishop or overseer of his own congregation, so that no other person or body of men have by divine institution a power to exercise any superior or pastoral office in it, may, properly speaking, be called (so far at least) *congregational*; and it is by a vulgar mistake that any such are called Presbyterians: for the Presbyterian discipline is exercised by synods and assemblies, subordinate to each other, and all of them subject to the authority of what is commonly called a *General Assembly*."

The Presbyterian Church in the United States was originally made up of emigrants from Scotland and the north of Ireland. They settled principally in Pennsylvania, West Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland. In 1704, the first Presbyterian judicatory in the United States was constituted under the name of the "Presbytery of Philadelphia." In 1716 the members of this community had so much increased, chiefly, however, by emigration from Europe, that they distributed themselves into four Presbyteries, bearing the names of Philadelphia, Newcastle, Snow Hill, and Long Island, and erected a synod under the name of the "Synod of Philadelphia." But the body was far from proving harmonious, by reason of the different views entertained on the subject of the discipline of the churches. The controversies in this connexion continued to increase until 1758, when all difficulties were healed, from which time harmony, with some few exceptions, has prevailed, and their cause rapidly gains strength.

In 1789, the first General Assembly, which is now the highest judicatory of the Presbyterian church in the United States, was convened at Philadelphia, which has continued to be the place of its annual meeting to the present time. Great prosperity has attended the cause of Presbyterianism in the United States. Within a few years, however, differences have, to some extent, prevailed among the ministers of this connexion; but as among so able and pious a body of men, the principles of the gospel are justly expected to exert their legitimate influence, it can subserve no benefit to record the grounds of a dissension, which it is hoped will be only temporary. The advocates of Presbyterianism reside chiefly in the middle, southern, and western states. The clergy attached to the order, are an able, enlightened, evangelical, and pious body, and their labours have been signally blessed. The number of synods in 1832, was twenty-

one; that of presbyteries, one hundred and ten; the clergy are estimated at one thousand nine hundred and thirty-five; the churches under the care of the general assembly, are two thousand two hundred and eighty-one, comprising more than two hundred and seventeen thousand three hundred and forty-eight members.

The doctrines of the Presbyterian church of the United States are Calvinistic, as may be seen in the confession of faith as revised by the General Assembly at their session in Philadelphia, in 1821; though the clergy, when composing instructions either for their respective parishes, or the public at large, are no more fettered by the confession, than are the clergy of the church of England by the thirty-nine articles.

In respect to their religious services, it is necessary only to say, that in Great Britain, Ireland, and America, they have laid aside the use of certain forms of prayer, and use extemporary prayer in the worship of God. They also differ from Episcopalians in this, that while the latter kneel in time of prayer, the former stand; and in singing the praise of God they all sit, while all Episcopalians stand.

SEC. V.—CALVINISTS.

Calvinists are those professing Christians, who adopt, without a strict uniformity however, the doctrine and discipline of the scriptures, as explained by Calvin. After whom John Calvin was born at Noyon, in France, in called. the year 1509. In early life, he applied himself to the study of the civil law, and becoming impressed with the importance of religion, and the necessity of a reformation in respect to errors prevalent at that time, especially in the Church of Rome, he devoted himself to divinity, and, at length, became professor of divinity, in the year 1536.

The general doctrines taught by the Calvinists of the present day, are embraced by such a multiplicity of sects, going under that and other names, that a summary only can be given of them in this chapter.

At first, the name of Calvinists was given to those who embraced not merely the doctrine, but the church-government and discipline established at Geneva, where Calvin was minister and professor of divinity, and was intended to distinguish them from the Lutherans. But since the meeting of the synod of Dort, this appellation has been applied

chiefly to those who embrace his leading views of the gospel, and is intended to distinguish them from the Arminians.

The leading principles of Calvin were the same as those of Augustin. The principal doctrines, by which those called Calvinists are distinguished from the Arminians, are reduced to five articles, which, from their being the chief points discussed at the synod of Dort, have since been denominated *the five points*. These are predestination, particular redemption, total depravity, effectual calling, and the certain perseverance of the saints.

1. The Calvinists maintain, that God hath chosen unto eternal glory a certain number of the fallen race of Adam in Christ, before the foundation of the world, according to his immutable purpose, and of his free grace and love, without the least foresight of faith, good works, or any conditions performed by the creature; and that he was pleased to pass by, and ordain to dishonour and wrath, the rest of mankind, for their sins, to the praise of his vindictive justice.

A few passages usually adduced in support of the above doctrine may with propriety be introduced in this place:—According as he hath *chosen* us in him before the foundation of the world, that we should be holy, and without blame before him in love. For he saith to Moses, I will have mercy on whom I will have mercy, and I will have compassion on whom I will have compassion. So, then it is not of him that willeth, nor of him that runneth, but of God that showeth mercy. Thou wilt say, then, why doth he yet find fault; for who hath resisted his will? Nay, but O man! who art thou that repliest against God? Shall the thing formed say to him that formed it, why hast thou made me thus? Hath not the potter power over the clay, of the same lump to make one vessel unto honour and another unto dishonour? Hath God cast away his people whom he *foreknew*? Wot ye not what the scripture saith of Elias? Even so at this present time also, there is a remnant according to the *election of grace*. And if by grace, then it is no more of works. What then? Israel hath not obtained that which he seeketh for, but the *election hath obtained it, and the rest are blinded*. Whom he did *predestinate*, them he also *called*. We give thanks to God always for you brethren, beloved of the Lord, because God hath from the beginning *chosen you to salvation*, through sanctification of the Spirit and belief of the truth. As many as were ordained to eternal life believed. Eph. i. 4. Rom. ix. 15—22; xi. 1—5; viii. 29, 30. 2 Thes. ii. 13. Acts xii.

The Calvinists, however do not consider predestination as

affecting the agency or accountableness of the creature, or as being to him any rule of conduct. On the contrary, they suppose him to act as freely, and to be as much the proper subject of calls, warnings, exhortations, promises, and threatenings, as if no decree existed.

2. They maintain, that though the death of Christ be a most perfect sacrifice, and satisfaction for sins, of infinite value, and abundantly sufficient to expiate the sins of the whole world; and though on this ground the gospel is to be preached to all mankind indiscriminately; yet it was the will of God, that Christ, by the blood of the cross, should efficaciously redeem all those, and those only, who, from eternity, were elected to salvation, and given to him by the Father.

The following passages among others are alleged in proof of the above doctrine:—Thou hast given him power over all flesh, that he should give eternal life to *as many as thou hast given him*. The good shepherd giveth his life for *the sheep*. I lay down my life for the sheep. He died not for that nation only, but that *he might gather together in one the children of God that are scattered abroad*. He gave himself for us, *that he might redeem us from all iniquity, and purify unto himself a peculiar people, zealous of good works*. He loved the church, and gave himself for it, that he might sanctify and cleanse it, and present it to himself, &c. And they sang a new song, saying, Thou art worthy; for thou wast slain, and hast redeemed us to God by thy blood, out of every kindred, and tongue, and people, and nation. John xvii. 2; x. 11, 15; xi. 52. Tit. ii. 14. Eph. v. 25—27. Rev. v. 9.

3. The Calvinists maintain, that mankind are totally depraved, in consequence of the fall of the first man, the sin of whom, as their public head, involved the corruption of all his posterity; and that this corruption extends over the whole soul, and renders it unable to turn to God, or to do any thing truly good, and exposes it to his righteous displeasure, both in this world and in that which is to come.

This is supported as follows:—By one man sin entered into the world, and death by sin; and so death passed upon all men, for that all have sinned. By one man's disobedience many were made sinners. I was born in sin and shapen in iniquity. God saw that the wickedness of man was great upon the earth, and that every imagination of his heart was only evil continually. God looked down from heaven upon the children of men, to see if there were any that did understand, that did seek God. Every one of them is gone back; they are altogether become filthy; there is none that doeth good, no, not

one. And you hath he quickened who were *dead in trespasses and sins*. Wherein in time past *ye* walked according to the course of this world, among whom also *we all* had our conversation in times past, in *the lust of our flesh*, fulfilling the desires of the flesh and the mind; and were by nature the children of wrath even as others. Rom. v. 12—19. Ps. li. 5. Gen. vi. 5. Ps. liii. 2, 3. Rom. iii. Eph. ii. 1—3.

4. The Calvinists maintain, that all whom God hath predestinated unto life, he is pleased, in his appointed time, effectually to call by his word and spirit out of that state of sin and death in which they are by nature, to grace and salvation by Jesus Christ.

They admit that the Holy Spirit, as calling men by the ministry of the gospel, may be resisted, and that where this is the case, the fault is not in the gospel, nor in Christ offered by the gospel, nor in God calling by the gospel, and also conferring various gifts upon them, but in those who are called. Yet, they contend, that when men are converted, it is not to be ascribed to themselves, as though by their own free-will they made themselves to differ, but merely to him who delivers them from the power of darkness, and translates them into the kingdom of his dear Son, and whose regenerating influence is certain and efficacious.

The following passages are supposed to support this doctrine: Whom he did predestinate, them he also called; and whom he called, them he also glorified. That *ye* may know what is the exceeding greatness of his power to us-ward who believe, according to the working of his mighty power, which he wrought in Christ when he *raised him from the dead*. Not of works lest any man should boast. For we are his *workmanship, created* in Christ Jesus unto good works. God, that *commanded* the light to shine out of darkness, hath shined in our hearts, &c. I will take away the stony heart out of their flesh, and will give them hearts of flesh. Rom. viii. 29. Eph. i. 19, 20; ii. 9, 10. 2 Cor. iv. 6. Ezek. xxxvi. 26.

5. Lastly, the Calvinists maintain, that those whom God has effectually called and sanctified by his spirit, shall never finally fall from a state of grace. They admit that true believers may fall partially, and would fall totally and finally, unless it were for the mercy and faithfulness of God, who keepeth the feet of his saints; that he who bestoweth the grace of perseverance, bestoweth it by means of reading and hearing the word, of meditations, exhortations, threatenings, and promises; but that none of these things imply the possibility of a believer's falling from a state of justification.

Among other passages, the following are urged in proof of the preceding sentiments:—I will put my fear in their hearts, *and they shall not depart from me.* He that believeth and is baptized, *shall be saved.* The water that I shall give him shall be in him a well of water *springing up into everlasting life.* This is the Father's will, *that of all which he hath given me I should lose nothing.* This is *life eternal*, to know thee, the only true God, and Jesus Christ whom thou hast sent. Whosoever is born of God doth not commit sin, because he is born of God. They went *out from us*, but they were not of us; for if they had been of us, they would have *continued* with us; but they went out, that they might be manifest that they were not all of us. Now unto him that is *able to keep you from falling, and to present you faultless* before the presence of his glory with exceeding joy, to the only wise God our Saviour, be glory and majesty, dominion and power, both now and ever, Amen. Jer. xxxii. 40. Mark xvi. 16. John iv. 14; vi. 39; xvii. 3. 1 John iii. 9; ii. 19. Jude, 24, 25.

Calvinists, those who strictly adhere to the opinions of Calvin, reject all ceremonies; since the shadows, as they say, are all passed away, the observance of them ought now to be laid aside amongst Christians. They, moreover, reject all subordination in the

Their estimation of ceremonies.

conduct of their ecclesiastical affairs, by declaring, that all the true pastors, wheresoever situated, have the same authority, and an equal power, under one Head, that is to say, their Lord and master Jesus Christ. As to the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, the confession explains their notion in the following terms. For the better maintenance and support of that spiritual life, which is peculiar to the saints, God has sent them down from heaven the bread of life, that is to say, his son Jesus Christ, who keeps up and maintains the spiritual life of his peculiar people, being eaten by them, that is to say, administered and received with faith and understanding. Christ, in order to represent to us that spiritual and heavenly bread, has instituted and appointed earthly and visible food for our use, which is the sacrament of his precious body and blood. And in order to convince us, that as we truly and really take, and hold that blessed sacrament in our hands, and put it afterwards into our mouths, by virtue whereof our natural lives are supported; so likewise we really and truly, by faith (which is both the hands and mouths of our souls) receive the true and real body and blood of Christ in our souls, for our spiritual subsistence, &c. In another place is introduced the following passage. We do not come short of the point, in

saying, that what is therein eaten, is the proper and natural body of Christ, and what is drank is his proper blood, but the mode or manner in which we eat it, is not in our mouths, but rather in our hearts by faith. Besides, notwithstanding the sacraments are united to the thing signified; yet they are not at all times so received by all Christians in general. The wicked and unworthy communicant receives the sacrament to his condemnation, but does not really and truly receive it.

The true Calvinistic churches are governed by several consistories, that is to say, the whole body (the pastors, elders, and deacons) of a church. The ministers are always the presidents of these consistories. Formerly there were not only national but provincial synods held in France. Their classis, otherwise called conferences, were subordinate to and dependent on the latter. Those classis were particular assemblies of part of the churches belonging to a province, which met sometimes half-yearly, and sometimes quarterly upon emergent occasions. At these classis or conferences, one or two ministers with an elder belonging to each church met, in order to settle and adjust such matters as the consistory had left undecided; but in case they could not agree, the affairs in debate were referred to the provincial synod, or to the national synod, in cases of moment and importance. From this short account it is evident, that the authority of those classis was always subordinate to the synods, as their consistories were to the classis. The power of their consistories extended no farther than to an ecclesiastical censure, that is to say, to a friendly admonition with respect to any irregularities or abuses, which might possibly have crept into some particular churches, and of some misdemeanors of which the members might possibly be found guilty. The laws of the United Provinces with respect to their classis are somewhat different from those of the French churches. They order, that their classis shall sit, and adjust those affairs which the synod had left unsettled, or some others, which accidentally intervened between the convention of the two synods; such, for instance, as that of the call of a candidate to the ministry. The synod has the sole right and privilege to constitute and appoint those classis; at least no affairs, however emergent, can justify the convention of them without their express orders. Moreover, the synodal church, that is to say, that particular church which is empowered to send deputies to the synod, has a right and privilege to write circular letters to five or six other churches, particularly those which are situate in the parts adjacent, in order to procure, by a plurality of votes, a license or

permission to convene a class. Such notice in writing as aforesaid must be sent to those churches fifteen days before such intended convention of a class; and each church is obliged to send a pastor and an elder, and if possible, the very same deputies who assisted at the last synod.

Each synod has a president, or moderator, and a clerk or two, belonging to it. The peculiar province of the moderator,

Synod. according to their discipline, is to manage and adjust every case that comes before him, to give notice of the several places, days, and particular hours appointed for the sessions of the synod, to move and open the matters in debate, to collect the votes of each individual member, to see that each speaks in his proper turn, and to prevent confusion, to make remonstrances, and to preside at their ecclesiastical censures, &c. To those employments, or offices of moderator and secretary, which expire with the synod, we must add that of the actuary. He is obliged to attend with a chest at each synod, in which the archives of it are always deposited. He holds his post but for three years; after that, it falls to another church: the actuary, however, is accountable to the synod itself, and not to his successor, for the several books entrusted to his care during the time of his service.

The consistory has the sole right of electing their elders and deacons. After they have once elected them, their names

Elders and Deacons. are declared publicly before the whole congregation on three Sundays successively, for their consent and approbation. On the third Sunday, in case there be no objection made to their election, they are duly admitted in the presence of the whole church. The form of their reception consists in an exhortation, not only directed to them in particular, but to all the assembly in general. That exhortation is accompanied with a particular prayer. The office or function of the elders, according to the discipline of the Protestant churches in France, consists in being jointly watchful with the pastors over their flock, in taking care that the several members of the church duly attend the public worship of God; in reporting all manner of misdemeanors, and taking cognizance of them in conjunction with the pastors. The discipline of the Netherlands adds, that it is their duty to have an eye over the pastors themselves, and the deacons, to pay the pastoral visit either before, or after the administration of the Lord's Supper, to comfort those who are in distress, and to instruct the ignorant, to prevent the blessed sacraments from being profaned, and to maintain and establish orthodoxy in the church. And, consequently, it may very reasonably be con-

cluded, that the office of those lay-ministers of the church is very difficult to be duly and faithfully discharged. The office of their deacons is to distribute the charities of well-disposed persons amongst their poor; to visit, and take care of them; to improve the little stock allotted for their support and maintenance to the best advantage, and to take care that such benefactions be not abused. Another branch of the duty of these lay-ministers of the Protestant churches is, to go to the several houses of their respective congregations, each of them attended by an elder, to acquaint them with the time appointed for the administration of the Lord's Supper; this custom, however, is not universal, any more than that other, of distributing from house to house small leaden tickets to such of their several congregations as are duly qualified to receive the holy communion. Their deacons are elected and installed much after the same manner as their elders. Neither of these offices are for life. In the United Provinces, the ministry, or according to the Walloon term, the office of an elder and deacon subsists but two years; after which they resign, and others supply their place. The discipline of the Protestant churches ordered and directed, that a too frequent change of elders and deacons should be avoided, as being very disadvantageous to the church.

The simplicity, of those ceremonies which are observed by the Protestants in the celebration of their two sacraments will not admit of a long description. The baptism of an infant is preceded by the reading of a formula-
Sacraments.
 lary, or office of baptism, and a prayer; after which the minister, addressing himself to the godfathers and godmothers, asks them in direct terms whether they assent to what the dignity of a sacrament requires of a true Christian, and which is unfortunately reduced, in almost all communities, to nothing more than a mere ceremony. According to the Protestants, the sacrament of baptism ought always to be administered in public, that is to say, according to the terms made use of in the discipline of the Protestant churches in France, in ecclesiastical assemblies, where there is a church duly prepared, and set in order for that purpose. If an exception to the general rule be admitted, it is only when the saints reside amongst infidels, or when any imminent danger, or actual persecution, obstructs their assembling together, or some other emergent occasion of the like nature. This rule is for the most part observed in all the Protestant churches.

The Lord's Supper, or holy communion, bears a very near affinity, in all respects, to that form or solemnity observed by

the Protestants in France. Several deacons and elders stand within reach of the table, where the sacrament of the Lord's Supper is administered: the elders to take care that a due decorum be preserved, suitable to the dignity of that mysterious ceremony; the deacons to cut the bread in small pieces, which the minister distributes amongst the communicants, and to fill the cup, which he likewise administers to them after the same manner. In some other places, as at Geneva, and in Switzerland, they do not seat themselves round a table, in which particular some pretend the primitive Protestants endeavoured to imitate the last supper which our blessed Lord ate with his apostles. They there present themselves before two ministers: one administer to the communicants the mystical and emblematic piece of bread, the other the cup, or a common glass, with a small quantity of wine in it. In case the communicant has a natural aversion to wine, the discipline of the churches in France indulges the communicant, and orders the bread only to be administered to him. In order to be duly qualified for receiving the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, the party must have attained to the years of discretion. In some countries they publish the names of their young catechumens. Before they presume to approach the Lord's table, they must at least be examined before the consistory. There is a peculiar form for the administration of the holy communion, which begins with a discourse on the institution, the nature of it, and the duties incumbent on all those who partake of the blessed sacrament. After that introductory discourse, the communicants repair to the place where they are to receive the Lord's Supper, the men first, and the women afterwards; and during the celebration of the sacrament, the reader, who at the same time is likewise the principal chorister, reads alternately several chapters out of the sacred scriptures, and sings several psalms. This chanter is always a layman, sometimes a mechanic, and at most but a school-master. At Geneva, and several other places where the Protestant religion prevails, those who are candidates for the ministry, execute that office. The communion service concludes with a prayer, and an exhortation sometimes longer and sometimes shorter, as a minister thinks most convenient, together with the anthem of St. Simeon.

The solemn observance of the Lord's Day consists in three sermons regularly preached every Sunday by three several ministers. Before the sermon begins, the chanter before-mentioned reads some portion of the sacred scriptures, and sings two or three psalms.

Service on
Lord's Day.

After that, the minister mounts the pulpit, sets another psalm, and then delivers a prayer of his own composing. As soon as he has done, he opens his Bible, and reads the text which he proposes to explain and improve. The sermon having lasted an hour, and sometimes much longer, the minister who delivered it, makes another extempore prayer; but before he begins, recommends all those who are any ways afflicted in mind, body, or estate, &c. to the prayers of the whole congregation. That being ended, another psalm is sung, and then the minister dismisses his audience with a general benediction.

SEC. VI.—ARMINIANS.

Arminianism, strictly speaking, is that system of religious doctrine, which was taught by Arminius, professor of divinity in the university of Leyden, who was born in Origin.
Ondewater, in Holland, in the year 1560. He originally embraced the doctrines of Calvin, but being requested by Martin Lydius, professor of Franeker, to reply to a work on predestination, which presented that doctrine in an unscriptural view, as was supposed by Lydius, and other Calvinists, Arminius became a convert to the doctrine he had undertaken to refute, and even carried it farther than those by whom it had been maintained. He condemned the notion of absolute decrees, and particular election, as unscriptural, irrational, and dangerous; and held, that Christ died, not for a select number, but for all men without exception; and that none have been chosen to eternal life, except those who God foresaw would believe and obey the gospel. This change in the sentiments of Arminius, which took place in 1591, gave great offence, as might have been expected, to the followers of Calvin, who regarded him not merely as a broacher of erroneous opinions, but as an apostate from that system, in which he had been strictly educated, and which he was bound, by many considerations, to defend.

Arminius died in 1609. During the century which followed that event, disputes ran very high in Holland between the Calvinists and the Arminians. On each side talents and learning were displayed; but some called in Controversies with the Calvinists.
the interference of the civil power; and thus terminated a controversy, which for some years had agitated the religious world. For this purpose the famous synod of Dort was held, 1618, where the Arminians were scandalously treated. Mosheim is of opinion, that even

before the meeting of the synod, it was agreed upon, that, on account of their religious opinions, they should be deemed enemies of their country, and accordingly be exposed to every species of persecution. A curious narrative of its proceedings may be seen in the series of letters written by the ever memorable John Hales, who was present on the occasion. This synod was succeeded by a severe persecution of the Arminians. The respectable Barneveldt lost his head on a scaffold, and the learned Grotius, condemned to perpetual imprisonment, escaped from his cell, and took refuge in France. The storm some time after abated; and Episcopius, an Arminian minister, opened a seminary in Amsterdam, which produced able divines, and excellent scholars.

After the synod of Dort, Arminianism made great progress among the reformed, in various parts of the continent, as well as in the United Provinces. Many of the protestants in France imbibed it, from conviction of its truth; and more were constrained to pay respect to it, from a seasonable complaisance to the catholics, who were extremely indignant at the synod; which complaisance gave way in process of time to better motives. In Bremen, Brandenburg, and other churches of Germany, it soon acquired an extensive and permanent footing. And even in Geneva, where Calvinism had flourished so long and so exclusively, it took up its residence, and in the course of a few years prevailed so much, that the Genevese might also be dominated an Arminian church.

In England, too, Arminianism was important at an early period; and, being taken under the protection of sovereign power, and made the condition of civil and ecclesiastical preferment, it was embraced more speedily, and more generally, than it would probably have been, had it enjoyed no such advantages. James I., who had sent deputies to the synod of Dort, to assist in condemning them, became at length, for political reasons, their most zealous friend and supporter. Under his successor, Charles I., every method was employed, and every effort made, by the celebrated Archbishop Laud, to strengthen and promote their cause; and in spite of all the strenuous opposition they met with from the Puritans; in spite of the opprobrious epithets with which their system was loaded; in spite of the speeches made against it in parliament, and the pamphlets written against it throughout the nation; in spite of the ignominious death which Laud and his sovereign suffered,—the exertions of that able and tyrannical prelate, in behalf of Arminianism, were in a great measure successful. It

languished during the usurpation of Cromwell, but revived again with fresh vigour at the restoration; when every thing hostile to Calvinistic or Puritanical principles became fashionable and gainful. Ever since that period, it has continued to flourish.

From England, Arminianism travelled into Scotland, where, however, it made no great impression for a long series of years, having to contend with a strong and rooted attachment to the doctrine and discipline of Geneva, and being generally united with episcopacy, of which the Scottish nation has been always and utterly abhorrent. Since the middle of the last century it has been rapidly gaining ground, particularly among that class of the higher ranks in which there is still left a serious and practical belief of the truth of Christianity. Of the clergy, a few venture to preach it openly in some of its most corrupted forms. There are a great many, too, who so far acquiesce in it, as never to meddle with the doctrines of election and reprobation, in their public or private ministrations, some from a decided disbelief of them, and others, from a mere conviction of their inexpediency. Arminianism has for many years prevailed to some extent in the United States. The Wesleyan Methodists are considered to have adopted the distinguishing doctrines of Arminianism, as have also a few among the Congregationalists, and probably more among the Episcopalians.

The distinguishing tenets of the Arminians may be said to consist chiefly in the different light in which they view the subjects of the five points, or in the different explanation which they give to them, and are comprised in the five following articles; *Predestination, Universal Redemption, the Corruption of Human Nature, Conversion, and Perseverance.* Creed.

I. With respect to the *first*, they maintained,—“That God, from all eternity, determined to bestow salvation on those whom he foresaw would persevere unto the end in their faith in Jesus Christ, and to inflict everlasting punishments on those who should continue in their unbelief, and resist to the end his divine assistance;—so that election was conditional, and reprobation, in like manner, the result of foreseen infidelity and persevering wickedness.”

II. On the *second* point they taught,—“That Jesus Christ, by his sufferings and death, made an atonement for the sins of all mankind in general, and of every individual in particular; that, however, none but those who believe in him, can be partakers of their divine benefit.”

III. On the *third* article they held,—“That true faith cannot proceed from the exercise of our natural faculties and powers, nor from the force and operation of free-will; since man, in consequence of his natural corruption, is incapable either of thinking or doing any good thing; and that, therefore, it is necessary to his conversion and salvation, that he be *regenerated*, and renewed by the operation of the Holy Ghost, which is the gift of God through Jesus Christ.”

IV. On the *fourth*, they believe,—“That divine grace, or the energy of the Holy Ghost, begins and perfects every thing that can be called good in man, and consequently all good works are to be attributed to God alone;—that, nevertheless, this grace is offered to all, and does not force men to act against their inclinations, but may be resisted and rendered ineffectual by the perverse will of the impenitent sinner.”

V. On the *fifth*, they hold,—“That God gives to the truly faithful who are regenerated by his grace, the means of preserving themselves in this state;” and though the first Arminians entertained some doubts respecting the closing part of this article, their followers uniformly maintain, “that the regenerate may lose true justifying faith, fall from a state of grace, and die in their sins.”

It appears, therefore, that the followers of Arminius believe that God, having an equal regard for all his creatures, sent his Son to die for the sins, not of the *elect only*, but of the *whole world*; that no mortal is rendered finally unhappy by an eternal and invincible decree, but that the misery of those who perish arises from themselves; and that, in this present imperfect state, believers, if not peculiarly vigilant, may, through the force of temptation, and the influence of Satan, fall from grace, and sink into final perdition.

SEC. VII.—CONGREGATIONALISTS.

The Congregationalists are a sect of Protestants, so called, from their maintaining that each congregation of Christians, which meets in one place for public worship, is a complete church, formed by the free consent and mutual agreement of the members, adopting its own rules of procedure, and subject to no control from other churches.

Definition of
Congregation-
alists.

They originated from a portion of the English establishment, who desired a *purser* church, and resolved, at all hazards, to enjoy the rights of conscience. From this circumstance they were stigmatized with the

Origin.

general name of *Puritans*, and under that appellation have been known in the history of succeeding times. The Congregationalists of New England are descendants of this people.

The Puritans were not distinguished as a body till the time of Queen Elizabeth; but being composed at first of different ranks, characters, opinions, and intentions, they soon divided into a variety of sects. They were all, however, united in hostility to the established church, as it had been modelled by the queen. History before their removal to America.

Among those sects the Brownists were for a time conspicuous; but being intolerant in their sentiments, and their leader, Robert Brown, after their retirement into the Netherlands, having forsaken them, and returned to the establishment, they declined. The immediate fathers of the New England Congregationalists, though they embraced some of the early tenets of Brown, particularly in respect to church government, and though they belonged to the same general class of dissenters, were nevertheless men of a different and better spirit. Their principles and their order were moulded chiefly by one of their first pastors, Mr. John Robinson, an accomplished, inoffensive man, considerably learned, and exemplary in piety. In their native land, however, they were not long permitted to live in peace. The spirit of persecution arose, and flying before it, Mr. Robinson and his people resolved to take refuge in Holland, at that time an asylum for the oppressed. It was, however, difficult to escape; and many and great were their perils, before they could even reach that country. There was a general prohibition of emigration, they were narrowly watched by the ecclesiastical authorities, and several times when they were about to embark, and once when they had already embarked, they were betrayed by the seamen, into the hands of their enemies. When at length they succeeded and arrived in Holland, they first established themselves at Amsterdam, but the following year they removed to Leyden. In this latter place they resided for twelve years, blessed with peace and prosperity. They observed the rules of their communion with entire fidelity, and as they were joined by numbers from England, became eventually a large and powerful church.

Desirable, however, as their present condition was, it promised to be prosperous only for the present. They were in a confined condition, surrounded by evil examples in the community among whom they lived; the fathers of the church were one after another called away by death; and fears were entertained that their young men would be corrupted, and swerve

Their removal and the objects in view.

from the faith. On these accounts they were desirous of removing to America. Accordingly, having at length settled the question of removal, a portion of the church under the charge of their elder, William Brewster, embarked for the New World, on the 6th of September, 1620. They had previously obtained leave of the Virginia company to begin a settlement at the mouth of the Hudson river. In their passage they suffered much from the elements, while their hopes were greatly disappointed by the treachery of their captain, who, through the influence of bribery, instead of taking them to their place of destination, landed them on the rock at Plymouth, on the 22d of December. The family of Mr. Robinson, after his death, which happened before he could be prepared to leave, together with the rest of his flock, at length joined their brethren in America.

This was the commencement of New England, and to the personal character of these men, is to be traced its civil polity,

and especially its Congregationalism. That General character of the original settlers of New England may be given in few words. As the founders of a nation, they were the most respectable of which history gives an account. The sterling qualities of their minds and hearts shone

in the peculiar circumstances in which they were placed, called as they were to perform arduous duties, and to sustain severe trials, in the exigencies of their infant establishment. Many of them were men of an accomplished education, and not less pious than they were learned. This was the case especially with their governors, magistrates, and leading characters. The people in general were pious and strictly moral. Instances of intemperance, wantonness, sabbath breaking, fraud, or any other gross immorality, were rarely found among them, for many years.

In respect to their spiritual teachers, it may be observed, that they were men of great learning and abilities. They

were all men of the strictest morals, serious, exacting, and laboured of experimental preachers. Mr. Neal, after giving a catalogue of the ministers, who first illuminated the churches of New England, bears this testimony concerning them. "I will not say that all the ministers mentioned were men of the first rate for learning, but I can assure the reader they had a better share of it, than most of their neighbouring clergy, at that time; they were men of great sobriety and virtue, plain, serious, affectionate preachers, exactly conformable to the doctrine of the church of England, and took a great deal of pains to promote a reformation of

manners in their several parishes." They were mighty and abundant in prayer. They not only fasted and prayed frequently with their people, in public, but kept many days of secret fasting, prayer, and self-examination, in their studies. Some of them, it seems, fasted and prayed, in this private manner, every week. Besides the exercises on the Lord's day, they preached lectures, not only in public, but from house to house. They were diligent and laborious in catechising and instructing the children and young people, both in public and private.

They paid a constant attention to the religion of their families. They read the scriptures and prayed in them daily, morning and evening, and instructed all their domestics constantly to attend the secret as well as private and public duties of religion. They were attentive to the religious state of all the families and individuals of their respective flocks. As they had taken up the cross, forsaken their pleasant seats and enjoyments in their native country, and followed their Saviour into a land not sown, for the sake of his holy religion, and the advancement of his kingdom, they sacrificed all worldly interests to these glorious purposes.*

It was the opinion of the principal divines, who first settled New England, and Connecticut, that in every church, completely organized, there was a pastor, teacher, ruling elder, and deacons. These distinct offices they imagined were clearly taught in those passages, Romans xii. 7; 1 Corinth. xii. 28; 1 Timothy v. 17; and Ephesians iv. 11. From these they argued the duty of all churches, which were able, to be thus furnished. In this manner were the churches of Hartford, Windsor, New Haven, and other towns, organized. The churches, which were not able to support a pastor and teacher, had their ruling elders and deacons. Their ruling elders were ordained with no less solemnity, than their pastors and teachers. Where no teacher could be obtained, the pastor performed the duties both of pastor and teacher. It was the general opinion, that the pastor's work consisted principally in exhortation, in working upon the will and affections. To this the whole force of his studies was to be directed; that, by his judicious, powerful, and affectionate addresses, he might win his hearers to the love and practice of the truth. But the teacher was *doctor in ecclesia*, whose business it was to teach, explain, and defend, the doctrines of christianity. He was to inform the judgment, and advance the work of illumination.

* Trumbull's History of Connecticut.

The business of the ruling elder was to assist the pastor in the government of the church. He was particularly set apart to watch over all its members; to prepare and bring forward all cases of discipline; to visit and pray with the sick and, in the absence of the pastor and teacher, to pray with the congregation and expound the scriptures.

The pastors and churches of New England maintained, with the reformed churches in general, that bishops and presbyters were only different names for the same office; and that all pastors, regularly separated to the gospel ministry, were scripture bishops. They also insisted, agreeably to the primitive practice, that the work of every pastor was confined, principally, to one particular church and congregation, who could all assemble at one place, whom he could inspect, and who could all unite together in acts of worship and discipline. Indeed the first ministers of Connecticut and New England at first maintained, that all the pastor's office power was confined to his own church and congregation, and that the administering of baptism and the Lord's Supper in other churches was irregular.

With respect to ordination, they held, that it did not constitute the essentials of the ministerial office; but the qualifications

The ordination of ministers. for office, the election of the church, guided by the rule of Christ and the acceptance of the pastor elect. Says Mr. Hooker, "Ordination is an approbation of the officer, and solemn setting and confirmation of him in his office, by prayer and laying on of hands." It was viewed, by the ministers of New England, as no more than putting the pastor elect into office, or a solemn recommending of him and his labours to the blessings of God. It was the general opinion, that elders ought to lay on hands in ordination, if there were a presbytery in the church, but if there were not, the church might appoint some other elders, or a number of the brethren to that service.

It was acknowledged that synods or general councils, were an ordinance of Christ, and in some cases, expedient and necessary: that their business was to give light and counsel in weighty concerns, and bear testimony against corruption in doctrines and morals.

Power of Synods. While it was granted, that their determinations ought to be received with reverence, and not to be counteracted, unless apparently repugnant to the scriptures, it was insisted, that they had no juridical power. The churches of Connecticut originally maintained, that the right of choosing and settling their ministers, of exercising discipline, and performing all

juridical acts was, in the church, when properly organized; and they denied all external or foreign power of presbyteries, synods, general councils, or assemblies. Hence they were termed congregational churches.

To show their manner of covenanting, we will take an example from the churches of New Haven, Milford, and Guilford, in Connecticut. These were formed first by the choice of seven persons, from among the brethren, who were termed the pillars. A confession of faith was drawn up to which they all assented, as preparatory to their covenanting together in church estate. They then entered into covenant, first with God, to be his people in Christ, and then with each other, to walk together in the strict and conscientious practice of all Christian duties, and in the enjoyment of all the ordinances and privileges of a church of Christ. The confessions of faith contained a summary of Christian doctrine, and were strictly Calvinistic. The covenants were full, solemn, and expressive, importing, that they avouched the Lord Jehovah, Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, to be their sovereign Lord and supreme Good; and that they gave themselves up to him, through Jesus Christ, in the way and on the terms of the covenant of grace. They covenanted with each other to uphold the divine worship and ordinances, in the churches of which they were members; to watch over each other as brethren; to bear testimony against all sin; and to teach all under their care to fear and serve the Lord. The other brethren joined themselves to the seven pillars, by making the same profession of faith, and covenanting in the same manner. The members, previously to their covenanting with each other, gave one another satisfaction with respect to their repentance, faith, and purposes of holy living.

Many of the clergy, who first came into the country, had good estates, and assisted their poor brethren and parishioners in their straits in making new settlements. The people were then far more dependent on their ministers than they have been since. The proportion of learned men was much less then, than at the present time. The clergy possessed a very great proportion of the literature of the colony. They were the principal instructors of the young gentlemen, who were liberally educated, before they commenced members of college, and they assisted them in their studies afterwards. They instructed and furnished others for public usefulness, who had not a public education. They had given a striking evidence of their integrity and self

An example
of their man-
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Influence of
the clergy.

denial, in emigrating into this rough and distant country, for the sake of religion, and were faithful and abundant in their labours. By their example, counsels, exhortations, and money, they assisted and encouraged the people. Besides, the people, who came into the country with them, had a high relish for the word and ordinances. They were exiles and fellow sufferers in a strange land. All these circumstances combined to give them an uncommon influence over their hearers of all ranks and characters. For many years they were consulted by the legislature, in all affairs of importance, civil or religious. They were appointed committees, with the governors and magistrates, to advise, make draughts, and assist them in the most delicate and interesting concerns of the commonwealth.

Amidst many causes of prosperity, in the Congregational churches of New England of the first ages, there was occasionally a source of inquietude and evil. Such was the controversy in respect to what has been called the *half-way covenant*. It arose about the year 1650 in the church at Hartford, Connecticut, respecting church membership. It soon extended to other churches, until at length the whole of New England became more or less agitated. The subject of the controversy, was the propriety of admitting into the church, any persons not outwardly vicious, upon merely a public assent to the cardinal truths of the Gospel, without allowing them to partake of the Lord's Supper. The object of this partial membership was, that parents might procure baptism for their children. The controversy brought the ministers of religion together at Boston, in 1657, in a synod, for the purpose of discussing and settling it. This body gave its sanction to what has been so significantly called "the half-way practice," and, strange to say, judged it *proper* to admit persons into the church, on the conditions above mentioned. The principal reason which governed the decision of the synod, was, that as the children in the provinces were mostly growing up in an unsanctified state, some measure must be taken to diffuse more widely the privilege of baptism, or the church itself, now fast diminishing, would, in their view, soon become extinct. They accordingly recommended this unscriptural plan; for the children thus baptized were considered as actual members of the church, and if irreproachable in their external deportment, were admitted at a certain age, to the communion table. The decision of the synod was far from being characterized by unanimity. The point was keenly debated before the body, nor did the discus-

sion cease for more than a century afterwards; and of the churches some acceded to the recommendation of the synod, and others refused compliance. This difference of practice ceased not to be a source of contention, till within a few years past. The practice and the controversy are now happily done away.

The present state of the Congregational churches is, in general, highly flourishing and happy. Except the Unitarian defection which exists in Massachusetts, particularly in Boston and its vicinity, Congregationalism, for the last thirty years, has regained a portion of its early purity and power. Its ministry is characterized by zeal, learning, and efficiency. The means of acquiring biblical and theological science have been multiplied, and are now extensively enjoyed. With the facilities enjoyed for obtaining a theological education, on the part of those who are designed for the ministry, are combined other means designed to advance the interests of the Congregational churches, and the general prevalence of morality and piety among the people. Among those means are infant schools, sabbath schools, bible classes, temperance associations, and domestic missionary societies. The great objects of benevolence, in relation to other sections of the United States and other countries, are also extensively patronized among the Congregationalists of New England. Above all, a vast increase has been received by their churches in consequence of revivals of religion, which have been enjoyed ever since the commencement of the present century.

In respect to the ordination and settlement of ministers in Congregational churches, we have briefly to state, that the mode of procedure is as follows. After the candidate has preached to the congregation for a longer or shorter time, as the case may be, if he proves acceptable to them, he is called by a vote of the church to become its pastor. In the same manner he subsequently receives a call from the congregation as such, or from the ecclesiastical society, consisting both of the members of the church and of others who are not church-members, to become their minister, with the offer of a salary, as his support. After the candidate accepts the invitation, the day is appointed, by mutual agreement, for his induction into office, and at the same time a council of pastors, usually in the immediate vicinity, is selected to carry the proposed measure into effect. This council commonly assembles on the day preceding that of the installation or ordination; examines the candi-

Present state
of the churches.

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settling minis-
ters.

date, and approves or rejects him, according as in their view he is qualified or otherwise for the proposed office. If he be approved, the solemnity takes place according to the appointment, at an hour fixed on by the council, the various parts of the service having been previously assigned to the officiating pastors.

In the matter of discipline among Congregational churches, the rule of procedure in all cases of personal injury, and in

Discipline. all ordinary cases of more general or public offence is held to be that which is pointed out by Christ in Matt. xviii. 15-17. 1. The first thing to be done in the treatment of such a case, is private expostulation with the offender. "Go and tell him his fault between thee and him alone." This you are to do, in just this way, in regard to every offence which deserves to be noticed at all. It is a too common practice with church-members, when they disagree, to neglect this simple measure—the dictate of common sense and christian feeling, no less than of the Saviour—till the difficulty has been fermenting and brewing a long time; till each has shown the other, in many ways, how much he dislikes and distrusts him; and perhaps till their mutual alienation has become a matter of general notoriety, not only in the church, but among all their worldly neighbours and acquaintance. Then when the difficulty has grown old and stubborn, one of the parties begins what he calls a course of discipline with the other, and goes to him, not with the design or hope of effecting a reconciliation at once, but only to tell him with a bitter mind all his grievances, and to get the matter in a way to be prosecuted before the church. I say then, remember this distinctly, If thy brother trespass against thee, *go* at once, like a brother, and in the spirit of a brother, to win him back to the exercise of kind feelings toward yourself. Tell him just what it is which has wounded you; hear his explanation; make every concession which you would make if you and he were in dying circumstances; be resolved that by your kindness, and gentleness, and meekness, you will heap coals of fire on his head, to melt but not to consume, to purify but not to destroy. If the offence is too small to be treated so formally, it is too small to be mentioned to a third person; nay, it is too small to be remembered to his disadvantage. Do this then, if you do any thing. Do this, and perhaps thou wilt gain thy brother.

2. The next step, if the former fails, is expostulation, with the assistance of one or two brethren. "If he will not hear thee, then take with thee one or two more." It was a princi-

ple of Jewish law, that no man should be condemned but by the concurrent testimony of two or three witnesses. "On the word of two witnesses, or on the word of three witnesses, shall the matter rest." Deut. xix. 15. This seems to have been a proverb among the Jews in the time of our Saviour. Christ quotes it accordingly in one of his public discourses, where he says, "My judgment is true; for I am not alone, but I and the Father that sent me. It is written in your law, that the testimony of two men is true." (John viii. 16, 17.) So in this instance he quotes it—the very words of the law—in a popular and proverbial sense. Take with you one or two more, that your expostulation with the offender may be confirmed by their concurrence and authority; and that, if you should be constrained to carry the matter farther, your complaint may be sustained by them, as well as by yourself. Here is a second trial of the man's spirit, a second opportunity for a reconciliation. Though the former effort failed, there is hope that this may be successful. When you came alone, perhaps he heard you with some prejudice against you, perhaps your manner was not sufficiently conciliating, perhaps your words were not fitly chosen. But now you have selected one or two of the brethren whom you consider most likely to have a favourable influence over him; and in their company you go to him, determined not to give him up, and earnestly bent on effecting a reconciliation. These brethren act as mediators between you and him, and as moderators of your debates. They hear his explanations, if he offers any; they hear his defence, if he defends himself. They show you perhaps some error on your part; they lead you perhaps to new concessions. They ply him with new arguments, or set the former arguments in a new light. Perhaps he yields; if so, how blessed is the victory. Peace is restored. Thou hast gained thy brother.

3. If he is still unyielding, there remains another effort. "If he shall neglect to hear them, tell it unto the church." In bringing the matter before the church, still use the advice and assistance of those brethren who have already assisted you. Let that which is alleged against the offending brother be distinctly defined. Show, in your complaint, (which ought of course to be in writing,) what specific offences the accused has committed against you, so that he may know, and the church may know, what it is which you are to prove, and against which he must defend himself. Let your complaint be put into the hands of the elders, that they may advise you of any mistake which you may have committed, or of any

thing which you may have left undone. And if, even at this stage, a reconciliation can be effected; by their mediation, or in any other way, so much the better; the great point is secured; thou hast gained thy brother. But if the necessity remains, let it come before the church; and let the church use their united endeavours to heal the difficulty. Perhaps the offender may now be won over to a new spirit. Let the trial be made. Let him be admonished and pleaded with by the assembled brotherhood, speaking through their elders. Try it diligently and thoroughly. Perhaps he may be gained.

4. But if all is in vain, then comes the last resort. "If he neglect to hear the church, let him be unto thee as a heathen man and a publican." He is no longer to be reckoned among the faithful. He has shown that he has not the spirit of Christ, and is none of his; and what remains but that he be regarded and treated accordingly. The church is to exclude him from its fellowship.*

Among the Congregationalists, the Lord's Supper is observed in that simple and plain form, which is indicated by the apostle in the latter part of the 11th chapter of his first epistle to the Corinthians. Only those who have made a public profession of religion, having before the congregation assented to the articles of faith held by the church, and owned its covenant, are considered as entitled to a seat at the sacramental table. To such, after the consecration of the elements of bread and wine, by the prayers of the officiating minister, are these elements administered, by the hands of the deacons of the church.

Among the Congregationalists, the rite of baptism is administered only to professed believers and to their children. Since the "half-way practice" has ceased, the children of a household are recognised as having a right to the seal of the covenant only through the faith of their parents, or of one of them, except where they are of suitable age to profess religion; on their own account. When the ordinance is administered, it is almost always by sprinkling or affusion. In some cases when it has been wished by the adult applicant, plunging has been adopted, after the manner of the Baptists.

The marriage ceremony among the Congregationalists is performed in a very simple and decent manner. After the publication of bans, in conformity to the civil statute, the parties commonly invite their minis-

* Bacon's Church Manual.

ter to the house of the parents of the lady, where their friends and acquaintance are assembled, and there, in presence of the company, take upon them the marriage vow from the lips of the minister, according to the particular form which he pleases to adopt. This form is always concise, expressive, and proper. The whole transaction is consecrated by prayers, commonly one before the administration of the covenant and another after it.

Their funerals are conducted after the model of simplicity and directness by which all their other religious ceremonies are distinguished. At the time of Funerals. interment, the minister of the parish by invitation, attends either at the house of the deceased, or at the church, where he meets the relatives and neighbours, and offers prayer suited to the occasion, after which the corpse is carried away, attended by the mourners and such of the assembly as choose, to the public burying-ground, where it is consigned to the grave. In some places it is customary for the officiating clergyman to make a short address to the people, either before or after the body is interred.

A late writer holds the following language as to the distinctive principles of Congregationalism. 1. Congregationalism is distinguished from all sorts of prelacy, Distinctive Roman, Oriental, English, and Wesleyan, by principles of the principle that all Christ's servants in the Congregation- work of the gospel, are equal in rank. alism.

2. It is distinguished from Episcopacy and Presbyterianism, by the principle that the only organized church is a particular church, a congregation of believers statedly meeting in one place. A provincial or national church, including many particular churches, and governed by general officers, has no place in the Congregational system.

3. It is distinguished from the forementioned systems, by the principle that all church power resides in the church, and not in church officers; and resides in each particular church directly and originally, by virtue of the express or implied compact of its members, and not traditionally, or by virtue of any authority derived by succession from some higher body, ecclesiastical or clerical.

4. It is distinguished from strict Independency, by the principle of the communion of churches.

5. It is distinguished from the system of the Baptist churches, by the principle of the right of believing parents to dedicate their infant children to God in baptism; by the principle that in the ceremony of baptism it is not material how

much water is used, or whether the water is applied to the person or the person to the water; and by the principle of open communion with all who make a credible profession of being Christ's disciples.

As to the difference between the Congregational System and the Presbyterian, two points may be stated more distinctly.

1. A Congregational church, like a Presbyterian church, may have its ruling elders; but while the Presbyterian system makes the elders accountable, not to the church, but to some "superior judicature," Congregationalism permits nothing to be done in the name of the church, without the distinct consent of the brotherhood.

2. A Congregational church may hold communion and intercourse with sister churches by means of such bodies as presbyteries and synods; but, while Presbyterianism regards these bodies as "judicatures," "courts of the Lord Jesus Christ," having authority to decide all controversies judicially, and to "send down" their injunctions to the churches,—Congregationalism must needs regard them only as meetings for intercourse and communion, as councils to advise and persuade in matters of common interest, and as means of keeping up a common feeling among the neighbouring and the distant members of the great union. Congregationalism acknowledges no power over the churches but the power of LIGHT and LOVE.*

SEC. VIII.—BAPTISTS.

The members of this denomination are distinguished from all other professing Christians, by their opinions respecting the ordinance of Christian Baptism. Conceiv-
 ing that positive institutions cannot be esta-
 blished by *analogical* reasoning, but depend on
 the will of the Saviour, revealed in *express*
precepts, and that apostolical example illustrative of this is
 the rule of duty, they differ from their Christian brethren with
 regard both to the *subjects* and the *mode* of baptism.

With respect to the *subjects*, from the command which Christ gave after his resurrection, and in which baptism is

mentioned as *consequent* to *faith* in the *gospel*,
 they conceive them to be those, and *those only*,
 who *believe* what the apostles were then *enjoined to preach*.

With respect to the *mode*, they affirm, that, instead of sprink-

* Bacon's Church Manual.

ling or pouring, the person ought to be *immersed* in the water, referring to the primitive practice, and observing that the baptizer as well as the baptized Mode. having *gone down into* the water, the latter is baptized *in it*, and both *come up out of it*. They say, that John baptized *in the Jordan*, and that Jesus, after being baptized, *came up out of it*. Believers are said also to be "*buried with Christ by baptism into death, wherein also they are risen with him*;" and the Baptists insist, that this is a doctrinal allusion incompatible with any other mode.

But they say, that their views of this institution are much more confirmed, and may be better understood, by studying its *nature* and *import*. They consider it as an impressive emblem of *that*, by which their sins are remitted or washed away, and of *that* on account of which the Holy Spirit is given to those who obey the Messiah. In other words, they view Christian baptism as a figurative representation of that which the gospel of Jesus is in testimony. To this the mind of the baptized is therefore naturally led, while spectators are to consider him as professing his faith in the gospel, and his subjection to the Redeemer. The Baptists, therefore, would say, that none ought to be baptized, except those who seem to believe this gospel; and that *immersion* is not properly a *mode* of baptism, but *baptism itself*.

Thus the English and most foreign Baptists consider a *personal profession of faith*, and an *immersion* in water, as essential to baptism. The profession of faith is generally made before the congregation, at a church-meeting. On these occasions some have a creed, to which they expect the candidate to assent, and to give a circumstantial account of his conversion; but others require only a profession of his faith as a Christian. The former generally consider baptism as an ordinance, which initiates persons into a particular church; and they say that, without breach of Christian liberty, they have a right to expect an agreement in articles of faith in their own societies. The latter think, that baptism initiates merely into a profession of the Christian religion, and therefore say, that they have no right to require an assent to their creed from such as do not intend to join their communion; and in support of their opinion, they quote the baptism of the eunuch in the eighth chapter of the Acts of the Apostles.

The Baptists are divided into the *General*, who are Arminians, and the *Particular*, who are Calvinists. Some of both classes allow *mixed communion*, by which is under- Two Classes. stood, that those who have not been baptized

by immersion on the profession of their faith, (but in their infancy, which they themselves deem valid,) may sit down at the Lord's table along with those who have been thus baptized. This has given rise to much controversy on the subject.

Some of both classes of Baptists are, at the same time, *Sabbatarians*, and, with the Jews, observe the seventh day of the week as the sabbath. This has been adopted by them, from a persuasion that all the ten commandments are in their nature strictly moral, and that the observance of the seventh day was never abrogated or repealed by our Saviour or his apostles.

In church-government the Baptists differ little from the Independents, except that, in some of their churches, the Baptists have three distinct orders of ministers, who are separately ordained, and to the highest of whom they give the name of *messengers*, to the second that of *elders*, and to the third that of *deacons*. With respect to excommunication, they seem closely to follow our Saviour's directions in the eighteenth chapter of St. Matthew's gospel, which they apply to differences between individuals; and if any man be guilty of scandalous immorality, they exclude him from the brotherhood or fellowship of the church. Like the other Protestant dissenters, the Baptists receive the Lord's Supper sitting at a common table, and giving the elements one to another.

The Baptists in Great Britain, Ireland, Holland, Germany, the United States of America, Upper Canada, &c. are divided, as has been already observed, into two distinct *classes*, or societies, the Particular or Calvinistic, and the General or Arminian Baptists. The former are said to be much more numerous than the latter.

The father of the General Baptists was a Mr. Smith, who was at first a clergyman of the Church of England; but resigning his living, he went over to Holland, where his Baptist-principles were warmly opposed by Messrs. Ainsworth and Robinson, of whom the former was pastor of the Brownists, or Independents, at Amsterdam, and the latter of those at Leyden. As Mr. Smith did not think that any one at the time was duly qualified to administer the ordinance of baptism, he baptized himself, and hence was denominated a *re-baptist*. He afterwards adopted the Arminian doctrines; and, in 1611, the General Baptists published a Confession of Faith, which diverges much further from Calvinism than those who are now called Arminians would approve. A considerable number of them have embraced Unitarianism. On this account, several of their ministers and churches, who disapprove of those principles, have, within the last fifty years, formed them-

selves into a distinct connexion, called *The New Association*. The churches, in this union, keep up a friendly acquaintance, in some outward things, with those from whom they have separated; but in things more essential, and, particularly, as to the changing of ministers, and the admission of members, they disclaim any connexion.

Dr. Evans, from the late Mr. Robinson's History of Baptism, has given the following animated account of this practice of adult baptism:—"Not many years ago, at Whittlesford, seven miles from Cambridge, forty-eight persons were baptized in that ford of the river from which the village takes its name. At ten o'clock of a very fine morning in May, about 1500 people of different ranks assembled together. At half-past ten in the forenoon, the late Dr. Andrew Gifford, Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, sub-librarian of the British Museum, and teacher of a Baptist congregation in Eagle-street, London, ascended a moveable pulpit in a large open courtyard, near the river, and adjoining to the house of the lord of the manor. Round him stood the congregation; people on horseback, in coaches, and in carts, formed the outside semicircle; many other persons sitting in the rooms of the houses, the sashes being open; all were uncovered, and there was a profound silence. The doctor first gave out a hymn, which the congregation sung. Then he prayed. Prayer ended, he took out a New Testament, and read his text—*I indeed baptize you with water unto repentance*. He observed, that the force of the preposition had escaped the notice of the translators, and that the true reading was—I indeed baptize or dip you in water at or upon repentance; which sense he confirmed by the forty-first verse of the twelfth chapter of Matthew, and other passages. Then he spoke, as most Baptists do on these occasions, concerning the *nature, subject, mode, and end* of this ordinance. He closed, by contrasting the doctrine of infant-sprinkling with that of believers' baptism, which being a part of Christian obedience, was supported by divine promises, on the accomplishment of which all good men might depend. After sermon he read another hymn and prayed, and then came down. Then the candidates for baptism retired, to prepare themselves.

"About half an hour after, the administrator, who that day was a nephew of the doctor's, and admirably qualified for the work, in a long black gown of fine baize, without a hat, with a small New Testament in his hand, came down to the riverside, accompanied by several Baptist-ministers and deacons of

their churches, and the persons to be baptized. The men came first, two and two, without hats, and dressed as usual, except that, instead of coats, each had on a long white baize gown, tied round the waist with a sash. Such as had no hair, wore white cotton or linen caps. The women followed the men, two and two, all dressed neat, clean, and plain, and their gowns white linen or dimity. It was said, the garments had knobs of lead at bottom, to make them sink. Each had a long silk cloak hanging loosely over her shoulders, a broad riband tied over her gown beneath the breast, and a hat on her head. They all ranged themselves around the administrator at the water-side. A great number of spectators stood on the banks of the river, on both sides; some had climbed and sat on the trees, many sat on horseback and in carriages, and all behaved with a decent seriousness, which did honour to the good sense and the good manners of the assembly, as well as to the free constitution of this country. First, the administrator read a hymn, which the people sung. Then he read that portion of scripture which is read in the Greek church on the same occasion, the history of the baptism of the eunuch, beginning at the 23d verse, and ending with the 39th. About ten minutes he stood expounding the verses, and then taking one of the men by the hand, he led him into the water, saying, as he went, '*See here is water, what doth hinder? If thou believest with all thine heart, thou mayest be baptized.*' When he came to a sufficient depth, he stopped, and with the utmost composure placing himself on the left hand of the man, his face being towards the man's shoulder, he put his right hand between his shoulders behind, gathering into it a little of the gown for hold; the fingers of the left hand he thrust into the sash before, and the man putting his thumbs into that hand, he locked all together, by closing his hand. Then he deliberately said, '*I baptize thee in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost:*' and while he uttered these words, standing wide, he gently *leaned him backward* and dipped him once. As soon as he had raised him, a person in a boat fastened there for the purpose, took hold of the man's hand, wiped his face with a napkin, and led him a few steps to another attendant, who then gave his arm, walked with him to the house, and assisted him to dress. There were many such in waiting, who, like the primitive susceptors, assisted during the whole service. The rest of the men followed the first, and were baptized in like manner. After them the women were baptized. A female friend took off at the water-side the hat and cloak. A deacon of the church led one to the

administrator and another from him; and a woman at the water-side took each as she came out of the river, and conducted her to the apartment in the house, where they dressed themselves. When all were baptized, the administrator coming up out of the river, and standing at the side, gave a short exhortation on the honour and the pleasure of obedience to divine commands, and then, with the usual benediction, dismissed the assembly. About half an hour after, the men newly-baptized, having dressed themselves, went from their room into a large hall in the house, where they were presently joined by the women, who came from their apartments to the same place. Then they sent a messenger to the administrator, who was dressing in his apartment, to inform him they waited for him. He presently came, and first prayed for a few minutes, and then closed the whole by a short discourse on the blessings of civil and religious liberty, the sufficiency of scripture, the pleasures of a good conscience, the importance of a holy life, and the prospect of a blessed immortality. This they call a *public baptism*."

A more *private baptism*, adds Dr. Evans, takes place after ■ similar manner in *baptisteries*, which are in or near the places of worship: thus every convenience is afforded for the purpose. This, indeed, is now the most common way of administering the ordinance among the Baptists, either with the attendance of friends, or in the presence of the congregation. Such is *baptism by immersion*; and thus conducted, it must be pronounced significant in its nature, and impressive in its tendency.

SEC. IX.—METHODISTS.

Methodist, as the distinctive appellation of a religious community, is now universally understood as designating the followers of the famous Mr. John Wesley. In No- Origin.
 vember, 1729, Mr. Wesley, being then a Fellow
 of Lincoln College, Oxford, Mr. Charles Wesley his brother, Mr. Morgan, Commoner of Christ Church, and Mr. Kirkman of Merton College, set apart some evenings for reading the original scriptures and prayer. Sometime after they were joined by Mr. Ingham of Queen's College, Mr. Broughton of Exeter, and Mr. James Hervey; and, in 1735, by the celebrated Mr. George Whitefield. They soon began to leave occasionally the more private fellowship meeting, to visit the prisoners in the castle, and the sick poor in the town. They also instituted a fund for the relief of the poor, to support which

they abridged all superfluities, and even many of the comforts of life. Their private meetings became more and more of a religious character. They observed the fasts of the ancient church every Wednesday and Friday, and communicated once a week. "We were now," says Mr. Wesley, "fifteen in number, all of one heart and of one mind." Their strict deportment soon attracted the attention of the college censors and students, who branded them with many opprobrious epithets, such as Sacramentarians, the Godly Club, and afterwards *Methodists*.

Whatever effect obloquy might have upon some of the members of this select class, Mr. John Wesley, as well as his brother, and several others, remained unshaken. He puzzled his opponents with questions concerning the reasonableness of his conduct. He did more; he confounded them by a uniform regularity of life, and an astonishing proficiency in his studies. Mr. Morgan, one of the most active members, was soon after this removed by death; occasioned, according to the representation of enemies, by fasting and excessive austerities. His character was drawn by Mr. Samuel Wesley, junior, in a poetic tribute to his memory, under this text, from the book of Wisdom, "We fools accounted his life madness." In the spring of 1735, Mr. John Wesley was called to attend his dying father, who desired him to present to Queen Caroline, a book he had just finished. Soon after his return to Oxford, he went to London on this account, where he was strongly solicited by Dr. Burton, one of the trustees for the new colony at Georgia, to go there to preach to the Indians. At first, he peremptorily refused. He particularly mentioned the grief it would occasion to his widowed mother. The case being referred to her, she is said to have made this reply: Had I twenty sons, I should rejoice that they were all so employed, though I should never see them more. His way appeared now plain; and he made arrangements for this enterprise. On Tuesday, October 14th, 1735, he set off from London for Gravesend, accompanied by Mr. Ingham, Mr. Delamotte, and his brother Charles, to embark for Georgia. There were six and twenty Germans on board, members of the Moravian church, with whose Christian deportment Mr. Wesley was much struck, and immediately set himself to learn the German language, in order to converse with them. The Moravian Bishop and two others of his society, began to learn English. He now began to preach extempore, which he afterwards made his constant practice during his life, and yet he wrote much.

The piety and devotion which Mr. Wesley and his companions manifested during the voyage was highly commendable, and indicated a becoming impression of the importance of their undertaking; but, owing to some disagreeable circumstances, Mr. John Wesley returned to England, without having made much progress in the proposed object, and was succeeded by his valued friend Mr. George Whitefield, who arrived at Savannah on the 7th May, 1738, and was received by Mr. Delamotte and many of Mr. Wesley's hearers. It may be proper to notice the success which attended Mr. Whitefield's labours in this quarter of the globe. He laboured with great zeal, and was honoured to be useful. He returned to England in the close of the same year to receive priest's orders. On his return to America in 1739, he landed at Philadelphia, and immediately began his spiritual labours, which he continued as he passed through the colonies of Virginia, Maryland, and North and South Carolina, being attended by considerable audiences. Upon his arrival at Savannah, he found the colony almost deserted, which moved him to carry into effect his scheme of building an orphan-house, which he had the happiness to see completed through his exertions, and the liberal donations of his friends. Upon his third visit to the western continent, he took a voyage to the Bermuda Islands, where his ministry was successfully attended, and some contributions made for his orphan-house at Savannah. Upon his sixth voyage to Georgia, he received the thanks of the governor and principal people for the advantage which the colony had derived from his benevolent exertions, a circumstance which tends greatly to vindicate the character of this singular man, from the very unjust reproach of avarice which was frequently thrown upon him. In 1769, he made his seventh and last voyage to America; but, although his labours were so extensive, he formed no separate congregation. In the intervals of his visits to America, he frequently made tours to Scotland and Ireland, where he attracted numerous assemblies, and always made a powerful impression by his eloquence; but having differed in doctrinal sentiment from Mr Wesley, and never having formed the idea of a separate association of itinerants and of members, he can scarcely be considered as the head of any party.

On the other hand, Mr. Wesley is considered the father of the Methodists. On his return to England, he was invited to preach in several churches, but the concourse of people who followed him was so great, that the churches in general were shut against him. His converts at length began to form them-

selves into a little society, which has proved the germ of a religious community more extended perhaps than almost any other, and surprisingly adapted by means of its regulations to increase and endure.*

In respect to the principal doctrines of the Methodists, it may be observed, that they maintain the total fall of man in

Doctrines. Adam, and his utter inability to recover himself, or take one step towards his recovery, "without the grace of God preventing him, that he may have a good will, and working with him, when he has that good will."

2. They are sometimes called *Arminians*, and hold general redemption. They assert "that Christ, by the *grace* of God, tasted death for every man." This *grace* they call *free*, as extending itself *freely* to all.

3. They hold Justification by Faith. "Justification," says Mr. Wesley, "sometimes means our acquittal at the last day. But this is altogether out of the present question; for that justification whereof our articles and homilies speak, signifies present forgiveness, pardon of sins, and consequently acceptance with God, who therein declares his righteousness, or justice and mercy, by or for the remission of the sins that are past, saying, I will be merciful to thy unrighteousness, and thine iniquities I will remember no more. I believe the condition of this is faith, (Rom. iv. 5, &c.) I mean, not only, that without faith we cannot be justified; but, also, that as soon as any one has true faith, in that moment he is justified. Faith, in general, is a divine supernatural evidence, or conviction, of things not seen, not discoverable by our bodily senses, as being either past, future, or spiritual. Justifying faith implies, not only a divine evidence, or conviction, that God was in Christ, reconciling the world unto himself, but a sure trust and confidence that Christ died for my sins; that he loved me, and gave himself for me. And the moment a penitent sinner believes this, God pardons and absolves him."

Mr. Wesley, speaking of the witness of the spirit, says, "The testimony of the spirit is an inward impression on the soul, whereby the Spirit of God directly witnesses to my spirit, that I am a child of God; that Jesus Christ hath loved me, and given himself for me; that all my sins are blotted out, and I, even I, am reconciled to God. The *manner* how the divine testimony is manifested to the heart, I do not take upon me to explain. But the fact we know, namely, that the Spirit of God does give a believer such a testimony of his adoption,

* New Edinburgh Enc. Art. Methodists.



Prayer meeting and Exhortation. p. 471.



Methodist Love Feast. p. 471.



that while it is present to the soul, he can no more doubt the reality of his sonship, than he can doubt the shining of the sun, while he stands in the full blaze of his beams."

4. The Methodists maintain, that, by virtue of the blood of Jesus Christ, and the operations of the Holy Spirit, it is their privilege to arrive at that maturity in grace, and participation of the divine nature, which excludes sin from the heart, and fills it with perfect love to God and man. This they denominate *Christian perfection*.*

A number of societies, united together, form what is called a circuit. A circuit generally includes a large market-town, and the circumjacent villages, to the extent of ten or fifteen miles. To one circuit, two or three, and sometimes four, preachers are appointed, one of whom is styled the superintendent; and this is the sphere of their labour for at least one year, but generally not more than two years. Once a quarter, the preachers meet all the classes, and speak personally to each member. Those who have walked orderly the preceding quarter then receive a ticket. These tickets are in some respects analogous to the tesseræ of the ancients, and answer all the purposes of the commendatory letters spoken of by the apostle. Their chief use is to prevent imposture. After the visitation of the classes, a meeting is held, consisting of all the preachers, leaders, and stewards in the circuit. At this meeting, the stewards deliver their collections to a circuit steward, and every thing relating to temporal matters is publicly settled. At this meeting the candidates for the ministry are proposed, and the stewards, after officiating a definite period, are changed. It is superior to a leader's meeting, and is called a quarterly meeting.

A number of these circuits, from five to ten, more or fewer, according to their extent, form a district, the preachers of which meet annually. Every district has a chairman, who fixes the time of meeting. These assemblies have authority, 1. To try and suspend preachers who are found immoral, erroneous in doctrine, or deficient in abilities; 2. To decide concerning the building of chapels; 3. To examine the demands from the circuits respecting the support of the preachers, and of their families; and, 4. To elect a representative to attend and form a committee, four days before the meeting of the conference, in order to prepare a draught of the stations for the ensuing year. The judgment of this meeting is conclusive until conference, to which an appeal is allowed in all cases.

* Nightingale's All Religions.

The conference, strictly speaking, consists only of a hundred of the senior travelling preachers, in consequence of a deed of declaration executed by Mr. Wesley, and enrolled in chancery. But, generally speaking, the conference is composed of the preachers elected at the preceding district-meetings as representatives; of the other superintendents of the districts; and of every preacher who chooses to attend; all of them (except the probationers) having an equal right to vote, &c. whether they belong to the hundred or not. At the conference, every preacher's character undergoes the strictest scrutiny; and if any charge be proved against him, he is punished accordingly. The preachers are also stationed, the proceedings of the subordinate meetings reviewed, and the state of the connexion at large is considered. It is the supreme court of the Methodists, over which there is no control, and from whose decisions there is no appeal. The conference is held in London, at Leeds, Bristol, Manchester, and Liverpool, in rotation.

Class Meetings are each composed of from twelve to twenty persons, one of whom is styled the leader. When they assemble, which is once a week, the leader gives out a few verses of a hymn, which they join in singing. He then makes a short prayer; after which he converses with each member respecting Christian experience, gives suitable advice to all, and concludes by singing and praying.

Band Meetings consist of about four or five members, who are nearly of the same age, in nearly similar circumstances, and of the same sex, who meet together once a week, in order to speak their minds more freely than it would be agreeable to do in a promiscuous assembly of members, such as a class meeting. The meeting is conducted in nearly the same manner as a class meeting. At stated periods, those who meet in these private bands, meet all together, forming a public or select band, when, after singing and prayer, any of the members are at liberty to rise and speak their experience. After a few of them have spoken, the meeting, as usual, is concluded by singing and prayer.

Watch-nights are rather similar to the vigils of the ancients, which they kept on the evenings preceding the grand festivals. They are held once a quarter. On these occasions, three or four of the preachers officiate, and a great concourse of people attend. The service commences between eight and nine at night. After one of the ministers

has preached, the rest pray and exhort, giving out at intervals suitable hymns, which the congregation join in singing till a few minutes after twelve o'clock, when they conclude.

Love feasts are also held quarterly. No persons are admitted who cannot produce a ticket to show that they are members, or a note of admittance from the superintendent. However, any serious person, who has never been present at one of these meetings, may be supplied with a note for once, but not oftener, unless he becomes a member. The meeting begins with singing and prayer. Afterwards, small pieces of bread, or plain cake, and some water, are distributed; and all present eat and drink together, in token of their Christian love to each other. Then, if any persons have any thing particular to say concerning their present Christian experience, or the manner in which they were first brought to the knowledge of the truth, they are permitted to speak; when a few of them have spoken, a collection is made for the poor, and the meeting is concluded with singing and prayer. This institution has no relation to the Lord's Supper. The elements of the Lord's Supper are bread and wine; but at the love feasts, bread and water only are used. The Methodists consider the former as a positive institution, which they are bound to observe as Christians; the latter as merely prudential. They have also numerous *prayer-meetings*, at which it frequently happens that some one will give an *exhortation* to the people.

The *New Methodist Connexion*, among the followers of Mr. Wesley, separated from the original Methodists in 1797. The grounds of this separation they declare to be *church-government*, and not doctrines, as affirmed by some of their opponents. They object to the old Methodists for having formed a hierarchy, or priestly corporation, and say that, in so doing, they have robbed the people of those privileges which, as members of a Christian church, they are entitled to by reason and scripture. The New Methodists have attempted to establish every part of their church-government on popular principles, and profess to have united, as much as possible, the ministers and the people in every department of it. This is quite contrary to the original government of the Methodists, which, in the most important cases, is confined only to the ministers. This, indeed, appears most plainly, when their conference, or Yearly Meeting, is considered; for in this meeting no person, who is not a travelling preacher, has ever been suffered to enter as a member of it; and, indeed, this is

Love Feasts.

New Methodists.

the point to which the preachers have always steadfastly adhered with the utmost firmness and resolution, and on which the division at present entirely rests. They are also upbraided by the New Methodists, for having abused the power they have assumed; a great many of these abuses the New Methodists have formally protested against, which are enumerated in various publications, and particularly in the Preface to the Life of one of their deceased friends, Mr. Alexander Kilham. Hence these New Methodists have been sometimes denominated *Kilhamites*.

These are a disowned branch of the Wesleyan Methodists, originating in Staffordshire, England, under Hugh Bourne.

Their first camp-meeting was held, May 31, 1807. It commenced at six o'clock in the morning and continued till eight in the evening. These camp-meetings being disapproved of by the old Connexion, a separation took place, when H. and J. Bourne enlarged their views, and the cause spread in every direction. Societies were established at Boystone, Todeley, and Hallington, in Derbyshire. A general meeting was held at Tunstall, Feb. 13, 1812, and a preparatory meeting at Nottingham, Aug. 18, 1819, when arrangements were made for annual meetings; quarterly meetings have been held in March, June, September, and December, under which "the work mightily enlarged." Missionary exertions, which had been declining, were revived at Belper "very powerfully," while "the praying people, in returning home, were accustomed to sing through the streets of Belper!" It is added, that "this circumstance procured them the name of *Ranters*, and the name of Ranter, which first arose on this occasion, afterwards spread very extensively." The work, we are told, then spread to Derby and Nottingham, whence circuits were established, one circuit having been hitherto sufficient for the connexion. The camp-meetings also had declined, but were thus revived.

"The declining state of the camp-meetings was severely felt in the circuit, and caused considerable anxiety; but as much prayer and supplication was made to Almighty God, he, in the year 1816, pointed out both the evil and the remedy by the following means: H. Bourne had put into his hand, 'The Narrative of a Mission to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick,' &c., by J. Marsden, Methodist Missionary." The author, during his mission, visited New York, and attended several of the American camp-meetings. These meetings continue day and night, for several days together. He shows that they have sometimes four, and sometimes five preachings,

in the course of twenty-four hours; and the intermediate time is filled up with services carried on by praying companies. He says, "During my continuance in this city, I had an opportunity of attending several camp-meetings, and as the nature of these stupendous means of grace is not distinctly known, I will spend a few moments in making my readers acquainted with them.

"The tents are generally pitched in the form of a crescent, in the centre of which is an elevated stand for the preachers, round which, in all directions, are placed rows of planks for the people to sit upon, while they hear the word. Among the trees, which spread their tops over this forest-church, are hung the lamps, which burn all night, and give light to the various exercises of religion which occupy the solemn midnight hours. As it was nearly eleven o'clock at night when I first arrived on the borders of a camp, I left the boat at the edge of the wood, one mile from the scene, though the sound of praise from such a multitude, and at such an hour, in the midst of a solitary wilderness, is difficult to describe; but when I opened upon the camp-ground, my curiosity was converted into astonishment, to behold the pendant lamps among the trees—the tents half encircling a large space—four thousand people in the centre of this, listening with profound attention to a preacher, whose stentorian voice and animated manner carried the vibration of each word to a great distance through the now deeply-umbrageous wood; where, save the twinkling lamps of the camp, brooding darkness spread a tenfold gloom;—all excited my astonishment, and forcibly brought before my view the Hebrews in the wilderness.

"The meetings generally begin on Monday morning, and on the Friday morning following break up. The daily exercises are carried forward in the following manner: In the morning at five o'clock, the horn sounds through the camp, either for public preaching or prayer; this, with smaller exercises, or a little intermission, brings on the breakfast hour, eight o'clock. At ten, the horn sounds for public preaching; after which, until noon, the interval is filled up with little groups of praying persons, who scatter themselves up and down the camp, both in the tents and under the trees. As these smaller exercises are productive of much good, a powerful spirit of prayer and exhortation is often poured forth. I have not unfrequently seen three or four persons lying on the ground, crying for mercy, or motionless, without any apparent signs of life, except pulsation. After dinner, the horn sounds at two o'clock; this is for preaching. I should have

observed, that a female or two is generally left in each tent, to prepare the proper materials for dinner, which is always cold meats, pies, tarts, tea, &c. (the use of ardent spirits being forbidden,) and a fire is kept burning in different parts of the camp, where the water is boiled. After the afternoon preaching, things take nearly the same course as in the morning, only the praying groups are upon a larger scale, and more scope is given to animated exhortations and loud prayers. Some who exercise on these occasions soon lose their voices, and, at the end of a camp-meeting, many, both preachers and people, can only speak in a whisper. At six o'clock in the evening the horn summons to preaching, after which, though in no regulated form, all the above means continue until morning: so that, go to whatever part of the camp you please, some are engaged in them: yea, and during whatever part of the night you awake, the wilderness is vocal with praise!

"At this camp-meeting, perhaps, not less than one hundred persons were awaked and converted to God. I have heard many say, that they never heard such praying, exhorting, and preaching any where else; and those who engage feel such a divine afflatus, that they are carried along as by the force of a delightful torrent; indeed, this has been so much the case with myself, the several times I preached and exhorted at these meetings, that I was sensible of nothing but a constraining influence, transporting me beyond myself, carrying me along with a freedom and fulness, both of emotion and language, quite unusual, and yet I had no very friendly views of camp-meetings until I attended them; however, I am now satisfied that they are the right-hand of Methodism in the United States, and one main cause why the societies have doubled and trebled there within these few years."

The camp-meetings of the Ranters were first suggested, and then revived, by the camp-meetings held throughout several parts of the United States of America.*

Methodism was introduced into the United States about the year 1766, at which time a few Methodists came from Ireland and established themselves in New York. Preachers were sent over in successive years by Mr. Wesley, and in 1773 the first regular conference was held in Philadelphia. In 1784 the Methodists in America became independent of those in England. At this time Mr. Wesley solemnly consecrated Thomas Coke as bishop; and having delivered to him letters of epis-

Methodism in
the United
States,

copal orders, commissioned and directed him to set apart Francis Asbury, then general assistant of the Methodist Society in America, for the same episcopal office; he, the said Francis Asbury, being first ordained deacon and elder. In consequence of which the said Francis Asbury was solemnly set apart for the said episcopal office by prayer, and the imposition of the hands of the said Thomas Coke, other regularly ordained ministers assisting in the sacred ceremony. At which time the General Conference, held at Baltimore, did unanimously receive the said Thomas Coke and Francis Asbury, as their bishops, being fully satisfied of the validity of their episcopal ordination.

The Annual Conferences of the Methodists in the United States are twenty-two in number. These assemblies consist of all the travelling preachers in full communion, and no others. Without the election of an annual conference no man can be ordained either deacon or elder. These bodies, when preachers offer themselves for admission, receive them first on trial, and afterwards, if they choose, into full connexion and membership. In other words, each annual conference is a corporation, which perpetuates itself by the election of its own members, and into which there can be no admission in any other way. This body has also the exclusive right of sitting in judgment on the character and conduct of its members. No itinerant preacher can be permanently censured or silenced, except by the conference to which he belongs; and from their decision he can make no appeal, except to the general conference.

Annual Conferences.

The bishops, of whom there are at present six, are elected by the general conference, and are ordained "by the laying on of the hands of three bishops, or at least of one bishop and two elders." To them it belongs to ordain elders and deacons; to preside in the conferences, annual and general; to appoint the presiding elders, giving to each his district, and changing or removing them at discretion; to assign to every preacher the circuit or station in which he shall labour, for a term not exceeding two years in succession; to change, receive, or suspend preachers, *pro tempore*, in the intervals of the conferences, as necessity may require, and the rules of discipline dictate; and, finally, to travel at large among the people, and "oversee the spiritual and temporal concerns of the Church." Presiding elders are assistant bishops, having each the special charge of a particular district; and each within his own district is, as it were, the bishop's vicerent.

Bishops.

It belongs to the travelling preachers to appoint all the class leaders within the circuit or station to which he is sent; and he may remove them at pleasure. He also ap-

Travelling
Preachers.

points the receivers of the quarterly collections, nominates the steward, and such exhorters as he thinks qualified. When a member is accused, the preacher in charge selects a committee, before whom the trial as to facts must proceed. If that committee, in which, of course, the preacher presides, finds the accused guilty, the appeal is not to the "society," the whole body of his brethren and equals, but to what is called the quarterly conference, consisting of all the travelling and local preachers, stewards, and class leaders, of the circuit. If the committee before whom the accused is tried in the first instance, finds him not guilty of the charge, he is not therefore acquitted; the preacher may send the whole matter up to the quarterly conference, and from that body the accused, if then condemned, has no appeal.

The privileges and prerogatives of local preachers are of an inferior character. The local preachers in each district

Local Preach-
ers.

are assembled annually by the presiding elder, in what is called the district conference. This body has power to license as preachers such persons as have been recommended by the quarterly conference; to recommend whom they choose to the annual conferences for ordination as deacons or elders "in the local connexion," or for admission on trial in the "travelling connexion;" and by them, local preachers, when accused, are to be tried as travelling preachers are tried by the annual conference, with the same right of appeal.

SEC. X.—QUAKERS.

The Quakers owe their origin to George Fox, who was born in Leicestershire about the year 1624. It is reported of

Origin.

him, that in his youth he was of a particularly melancholy temper, and loved to be by himself. At an early age he became apprentice to a shoemaker. While in this situation, he devoted himself with great diligence to the perusal of the scriptures, and, as opportunity presented, was wont to exhort his fellow shoemakers, from whom, however he received no great encouragement. As he was one day walking alone in the fields, reflecting according to custom on the disorderly lives of men, and considering of the properest means to reform them, for the glory of God, and their own temporal and eternal happiness; he thought he heard a voice

from heaven, or rather he felt one of those sudden impulses, which the Quakers take for special motions from the Holy Ghost. This pretended voice, or impulse of the Spirit of God, set before his eyes a lively representation of the corrupt and abandoned lives of men, from their cradle to extreme old age, at which time nothing is left to return to God, but weak and decayed senses, and a second childhood; exhorting him at the same time to retirement and an absolute separation from the general corruption of the world. This is the true epoch of Fox's vocation: after this call from heaven, he lived in a closer retreat than before; he searched narrowly into the state of his conscience; retrenched whatever he found superfluous, and followed his trade no further than was necessary for his subsistence. He went about preaching from place to place, and boldly entered into disputes with divines and ministers, trusting solely to and being guided only by that pretended divine voice, which *interiorly speaks to the heart, and draws men as it pleases*. This caused Fox to be looked upon as a seditious person; on which account he was seized at Nottingham, in 1649, and imprisoned. This first imprisonment occurred when he was twenty-five years of age. On being released from Nottingham jail, he preached in other places, where he was roughly handled by the mob for his extravagant behaviour, and the boldness with which he interrupted the ministers in their sermons. At Derby, he was shut up for six months in a house of correction; and when he came out of it, in order to be examined by Jeremy Bennet, a justice of the peace, the name of Quakers was given to him and his disciples, because, in his answers and public exhortations, he often said, quaking and trembling were necessary dispositions to hear the word of God with profit.

Nottingham and Derby were not the only places in which Fox was punished on account of his fanatical sallies; his want of good breeding; his theeing and thouing; his pretending to give admonitions from heaven; and other insufferable abuses committed by him; he had been cast into prison, and whipped in those towns; at other places he was put in the pillory, and underwent some punishments equally ignominious; he was often stoned or beaten almost to death: but he endured all those affronts according to the literal sense of the gospel-precept; he desired the judges to order a second execution of the sentence pronounced against him; he presented his cheek and his back to those who had struck or whipped him; and in the midst of these temporal afflictions he rejoiced, and was comforted by the daily increase of the number of his adherents.

Cromwell was soon acquainted with Fox's reputation, and the progress of his sect: at first he despised them and their principles, not thinking a body of men, who preached and practised literally evangelical patience, who presented themselves to be beaten and abused, and who gloried in suffering for the love of God, could be of any use to him in the government of the state: but upon consideration, and perceiving how quickly that sect spread itself throughout the whole kingdom, his contempt turned to wonder. He employed the most pressing solicitations, he offered large sums of money to win over those enthusiasts to his interest, but without any success; they were above corruption, and behaved like worthy disciples of the gospel; and forced that tyrant to praise this new species of men, whom he could not engage to his party by either gifts or favours, which means he had tried upon all other sects without ever missing his aim.

The Quakers flattered themselves with the hope of enjoying some quiet at the restoration of Charles II., but refusing to take the oath of allegiance to that monarch, because in their opinion all oaths are forbidden, a grievous persecution was raised against them. While suffering these persecutions, they were considerably strengthened by the accession to their fraternity of the well known William Penn; who, on account of his talents and ample fortune, soon acquired no small influence and reputation among them. About the same time also, the persecution against them abating, they employed themselves in reducing their views to a more regular system, and in adopting rules according to which they were to govern themselves. These we shall briefly notice.

Both sexes have general meetings, which may be called classes, colloquies, and synods. In those assemblies, which are either provincial, and held every three months, or general, and called together every year, censures are pronounced, ecclesiastical affairs reviewed, books examined, and the most material occurrences registered in their records. In England the Quakers' general meeting is fixed to the third day after Pentecost; not out of superstition, they say, as if they expected their deputies should be more particularly inspired at a time when the commemoration of the Holy Ghost's coming down upon the Apostles is celebrated, but solely out of a principle of regularity in meeting on a fixed day, and at a convenient season; and it is notorious, that the Quakers keep no holy-days, and solemnize no festival. The Holy Ghost, the *spirit within*, neither knows nor admits any such distinctions. De-

General
Meetings.

puties from all the Quakers dispersed through the whole world, meet at these assemblies; in which there is a secretary to register, or propose the matters to be debated, or copy out the decisions: but the Holy Ghost is the invisible president; and they do not admit of a visible one.

Their outward exercises of devotions consist in a profound contemplation, whilst some one of them, man or woman, rises up either with a sedate and composed motion, or in a kind of transport, as if actuated by an irresistible power, and often with sighs, groans, and tears. Public Devotions.

This variety of behaviour is caused, as they pretend, by the impression of the spirit, which often dictates to the man or woman preacher, sermons two or three hours long, after a deep and sullen silence of an equal duration has stupified those enthusiasts. This spiritual lethargy, if we believe the Quakers, makes them enter into a serious consideration of the state of their own souls, into a deep meditation, by means of which the spirit prepares to itself hidden ways to penetrate into the hearts of the faithful; then it breaks forth in sermons and exhortations, or in prayer or psalmody: during which, those who are not inspired to speak, remain in a state of recollection, examine themselves, sigh and groan, and make a suitable application of what they hear to the circumstances in which they find their own souls. From that inward conflict of the spirit against the flesh; from the devil's furious assaults to keep the mastery, proceed sometimes those bodily motions, those shakings and tremblings, with which the faithful are seized, and which are now and then so universal, that, as Croesius relates it, the whole assembly-room has seemed to be agitated by an earthquake. It has likewise happened more than once, that the meeting was concluded without any sermon, exhortation, or public prayer; but the inward devotion was so much less interrupted.

Meditation, prayer, recollection, contemplation, and reading the Bible, are the chief devotions which the Quakers use at home; they are longer or shorter, more or less frequent, and alternately diversified as the spirit moves. Private Devotions, &c. Their children are brought up to those exercises from their infancy, have a very plain and modest education, without any ornaments, fine clothes, what is called a genteel behaviour, or endeavouring to please other men. The Quakers' dress is brown, or of some plain dark colour, somewhat like a waistcoat, without plaits on the sides, without buttons on the pockets or sleeves, their hats broad-brimmed and horizontal; all the politeness they aim at is an open frank

access, and natural easy conversation. They know not, says the author of the philosophical letters, how to draw one leg behind the other, or to carry in their hands what is made to cover their heads.

They keep no festivals; but as every thing is done by them according to the motion of the spirit, they may meet on any day; in England and Holland they meet regularly every Sunday: they neither pray nor speak, either in public or private, with a loud voice, but

Time of wor-
ship. ship. when the *spirit within* bids them. If this spirit do not move them, they are only to *think* at church, at table, at going to bed. In England also, being obliged by reason of the persecution to hide themselves, and for that end to meet in small close rooms, where, consequently, it often happened, that to prevent faintings, those of a weak constitution brought with them small vinegar, or Hungary water-bottles to smell to, the poor Quakers lay under the scandalous imputation of inspiring themselves, and bringing down the spirit by the strength of the liquor.

The Quakers place no great value on the knowledge of languages and learning, which although they do not think en-

Estimation of knowledge, titles, honours, &c. tirely useless, yet they say, are not necessary for the ministry. The spirit speaks, and truly according to their system, that spirit wants neither

philosophy, Greek, nor Hebrew, to understand the scripture and explain it to the people: they express a great contempt of philosophy and divinity, chiefly as taught in the schools, and esteem them no otherwise than as the inventions of Satan.

They likewise reject all titles of honour, either in the state or in the church, and have no regard to academical degrees. All these marks of distinction are only apt to set up so many masters, which the gospel expressly forbids, we being all equally brethren: they give the name of hirelings to Protestant clergymen, on account of the income they receive from the lands they possess, from tithes, salaries, or pensions. And according to their system, it is evident they cannot approve of a limitation in the number of ministers, nor of that function being appropriated to a particular order of men, since the *spirit within* is not and cannot be confined. Moreover, they think the number of pastors is too small to comply with all the duties required of them; and that there ought to be missionaries, who might, as amongst Catholics, labour without intermission for the propagation of the faith; and are of opinion, that the present behaviour of other Protestants in that particular, paves the way for antichrist.





Quaker Worship. p. 479.



Quaker Marriage. p. 483.

Duties, taxes, great salaries, and profits, all other means employed in civil societies, to engage men to do their duty, and become useful members of the commonwealth, by the hope of considerable gains, seem odious and dangerous to the Quakers, as becoming only hirelings and slaves to avarice, not good citizens, or Christians, who ought to have their duty at heart.

Amongst the Quakers the *spirit* is free, and does not submit to synods, nor to wordly learning, wisdom, or customs: this is one of the chief and most essential articles of their religion. All the members of the church may and ought to concur to the general good of the body; all may have the same helps from the Holy Ghost, and feel the same impressions of his power; all are animated and fed, like our bodily members, by the same efficacy and in the same manner; all by consequence ought to give a helping hand to the edification of the mystical body, as natural members contribute to the welfare of human bodies. This they apply to the evangelical ministry: the spirit, say the Quakers, notifies by its impulse what is wanting to the church, and obliges those members upon whom he makes that impulse, to give a speedy help to the mystical body. If it should happen that out of laziness, neglect, or distraction, the person so moved, should not be sensible of the impulse, or not give a due attention to the defects of which the members of the mystical body are guilty; then they ought to rouse themselves with new fervour, and by a perfect recollection, make a trial of the gifts and power of the spirit of life. The call to pastoral functions essentially consists in this, it requires no pomp, no ceremony, no improvement of the mind, no preparation, no examination, nor any of the means used in other Christian societies, to provide churches with pastors and teachers. Yet if after this *inward trial* any one be moved and forcibly drawn by the spirit to engage in the ministry, the ecclesiastical council must not omit the formality of examining whether the person so inspired be in reality fit for it, and ought to be admitted to that dignity; the importance of which, in regard to himself, and to the whole church, is strongly represented to him, in a speech or exhortation made to that end: and in this manner, the pastors, and the assembly of the faithful Quakers, concur with the spirit to the election of the new minister, who thus is called and accepted. This ceremony is sometimes accompanied by the letters of other churches and societies of Quakers, recommending such or such to that office. When installed, they are maintained by voluntary con-

tributions only, without any settlement, contract, or previous agreement. Each Quaker contributes freely according to his power, and the minister is not to accept of their benevolence, further than is necessary for a sober and frugal maintenance: but if he be reduced to poverty for want of such contributions, it is lawful for him to leave the congregation which he served: he may even, according to their historian, shake the dust off his feet against that church, as Christ ordered his apostles to do against those who would not receive them.

The Quakers reject baptism and the Lord's Supper. The truth is, they look upon baptism as a Jewish ceremony, yet they are willing that other Christian societies should receive it as a token of regeneration, of initiation, or an introduction to Christianity. But they pretend, that in our holy and all spiritual religion, outward signs ought not to prevail upon duty, nor a wicked man be esteemed a Christian on account of his being baptized; whilst, for want of that ceremony, another man, who complies with all the Christian duties, is looked upon as a heathen. The true baptism of Christ, say they, is the purifying of the soul, and that only can save men. Their belief concerning the communion is also another stumbling block; and upon perusing their profession of faith about that article, most people are apt to repeat the exclamation of Voltaire, and to echo after him, *What, no communion!* The Quaker's answer is, *We have no communion, but the union of hearts.*

Marriage is contracted amongst them with as little ceremony as all their other duties are performed. A Dutch Quaker, being reproved for the holy indifference which he pretended to, in paying a homage due to nature, gave this short answer, It is enough that necessity requires it. Nature gives the same bent to Quakers as to all other sects, all other religions; but they pretend to govern its unruly motions, and to make it act as being in them perfectly regenerate. Therefore their youth are christianly instructed in whatever concerns that honourable state; they are admonished that it is of the highest importance, that it requires a serious and strict examination, and is not to be entered into without a nice choice, much reflection, and the approbation and consent of their parents. When after all this, they persist in the resolution of marrying, they must give notice of their design to the ecclesiastical council, who make the usual inquiries, Whether they be qualified to marry? and have the consent of their parents? &c. Informations are likewise taken

from those who are present, to know if no opposition be made to the marriage intended, and on the next Sunday following they publish a kind of ban. These preliminaries being over, the contract becomes valid amongst the Quakers in this form : The bride and bridegroom come to the assembly accompanied by the friends and relations whom they think fit to invite. There, in presence of the said friends and relations, they are desired to declare whether they love one another, whether they be mutually willing to have each other, and are resolved to help and assist each other. To these, and such other questions suitable to the occasion, the Quakers give, with all sincerity, the usual answers: which, with their mutual consent, are registered in a book kept for that purpose. The contracting parties set their names to it, as also the friends and relations as witnesses; which being done, the new married couple are dismissed. The disorders usually committed at weddings, are, or ought to be, wholly unknown amongst Quakers. The body being, in their system, the vessel and garment of the soul, it must be maintained and kept with simplicity and modesty, without superfluity, or endeavouring to please the senses at the expense of the purity of the soul. Those marriages of the Quakers were heretofore deemed illegal in England; but they are now tolerated, and looked upon as valid and indissoluble contracts.

Their obsequies are without pomp, without funeral orations, all which, according to their notions, are as opposite to Christian simplicity, as the foolish diversions allowed by other Christians, at the celebration of their marriages. Can any thing be more extravagant, they say, than that the friends and relations of the deceased should, with a sorrowful countenance, follow his corpse, and accompany it to the grave in a mourning dress, and then come back to the house to drink, and sometimes get drunk in his honour? What contrary proceedings are these! is it not a mere comical farce to see their formal affected grief, seeming, in their long black cloaks, to shed tears for the loss of a parent or friend, of whose death they are heartily glad, for the sake of the riches he has bequeathed to them? All those abuses are avoided by the Quakers. They carry the dead to their burying place, without attendance or mourning; and content themselves with a serious meditation on the frailty of human life, and mutually exhorting each other to the practice of virtue, and to a faithful imitation of the deceased, if his example were truly worthy of being followed.

Our limits admit of but a partial exposition of the faith of

Creed. the Quakers. The following are their principal articles of belief:—

Every one who leads a moral life, and from the sincerity of his heart complies with the duties of natural religion, must be deemed an essentially good Christian. An historical faith and belief of some extraordinary facts, which the Christians own for truths, are the only real difference between a virtuous pagan and a good Christian, and this faith is not necessary to salvation.

Christ is the true inward light, which enlightens all men. This is performed by an immediate inspiration, and not by the outward doctrine of the gospel, which Christ has preached to men as a rule of their belief and practice; which outward preaching of evangelical truths, is not the usual and ordinary method used by God to enlighten mankind; but he sends to each person interior inspirations. This interior light is the true gospel, it is to be adored as being Christ himself and God himself.

Scripture is not the true rule, the real guide of Christian faith and moral doctrine: this is a prerogative belonging only to the inward light, which each has within himself, or which breaks forth in the assemblies of the brethren or *friends*. The *dead letter* of the sacred writings, is not of so great authority as the preaching of the authors of them: the particular books which make up the scripture, were directed to private churches or persons, and we are not interested in them.

The chief rule of our faith is the inspiration of the Holy Ghost, who interiorly teaches us; and the scripture is only a rule subordinate to that spirit. An immediate inspiration is as necessary to us as to the apostles: it teaches us whatever is necessary to salvation. The promise which Christ made to his apostles, *to teach them all truth by his spirit*, and that the Holy Ghost *should always remain with them*, was not confined to the apostles only, it belongs to all the faithful; and it is said of them all, that the *unction shall teach them all things*.

All true ministers of Christ are as infallible in what they teach, as the prophets and apostles were: otherwise the spirit of Christ would not be infallible. All those who are filled with the gifts of the spirit are equally infallible, without which the infallibility of the Holy Ghost must be divided; there is no exterior way of teaching, which may help one to judge of the truth of the doctrine which he preaches. The immediate inspiration is sufficient to enable a minister to preach without scripture, or any other exterior helps. Without this particular inspiration all those who pretend to argue upon

or explain the words of Christ, are false prophets and deceivers. The church ought to have no other ministers, but those who are called by an immediate inspiration, which is best proved by interior miracles, of which the outward signs were only a representation or figure. The Quakers do not preach a new gospel, and therefore need not work miracles to prove their doctrine: a visible succession of ministers ordained, or otherwise established, is likewise of no use. Whoever is inwardly called to the ministerial functions, is sufficiently qualified for that post; inward sanctity is as essentially requisite in a true minister, as in a true member of the church.

Women may preach with as much authority as men, and be ministers of the church; *for in Christ there is no distinction of male and female*, and the prophet Joel has foretold that women should have the gift of prophecy as well as men.

The scripture no where says, that the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost, are three persons; there are three several manifestations; but three persons would in reality be three gods. The scripture being silent as to the manner of the unity, and of the distinction in the Trinity, it is a great rashness in the Christian churches to meddle with deciding such intricate points. The distinction of persons in the godhead is a speculative subtlety, not calculated to mend our lives, and very prejudicial to Christian peace and charity. To draw up an exact profession of faith, it is necessary to adhere closely to the expressions used in scripture.

The true Christ is he, who existed before he was manifested in the flesh, and who has never been seen with the eyes of the flesh. Jesus Christ, as God, has a heavenly humanity, of which the earthly one is but the outward garment, the type or figure. Jesus Christ, the Word and Son of God, did not personally unite himself to our human nature, he only took it as a suit of clothes, which he was to put on for a while. This human nature was inspired, as other men, but in a superior and more particular degree. Christ could not be united to a corrupt nature; his interior birth within men, is a greater mystery than his outward nativity. The faith in and the knowledge of Christ, according to the flesh, and of his mysteries, were but the first elements fit for the infancy of Christianity, which being over, those rudiments become useless; we now have learned to be in Christ, to become new creatures, to let old things pass away in order to make room for the new.

The expiation of our sins has not been merited by the out-

ward spilling of Christ's blood, which was not more precious than that of any other saint: neither has the church been redeemed by it, but by an inward and spiritual blood, which purifies our hearts and consciences, of which the scripture says it was spilt for our justification; lastly, of which Christ himself says, that *he who does not drink his blood shall not have life in him.*

The scripture does not say that Christ satisfied the justice of God for our sins. As God may without any injustice forgive our sins without such a satisfaction, it was not necessary, neither can it be reconciled with the gratuitous remission of our sins: and moreover, God's punishing his own son, who was innocent, is contrary to divine justice.

Christ did not go up to heaven with the body which he had on earth, which is not now in heaven at the right hand of God. It is an erroneous opinion to think or believe that the body of Christ, which is in heaven, occupies and fills any particular limited place: the body of Christ is wherever his spirit is; and it cannot save us, if distance of place separates it from us: whoever preaches a doctrine opposite to these propositions, is a false minister, and deceitful teacher: the same gift of discernment in the examination of spirits, which was bestowed on the apostles, remains still in the church.

Our sins being once forgiven, it is wholly unnecessary to repent of them any further, or to go on in asking forgiveness for them. We cannot become God's servant's unless we be first purified.

Outward baptism is not an ordinance of Christ, or at least not to be observed as a perpetual law. Whoever pretends that Christ's order is to be understood of water-baptism adds to the text, which does not mention water. The baptism enjoined by Christ is a baptism of spirit, not of water. The water-baptism was St. John's and has been abolished. St. Paul says he was not sent to baptize, but to preach. Water-baptism was used by the apostle's only as a toleration for the weakness of the Jews, but it can do no good to the soul. Baptism by inspersion is nowhere mentioned in scripture. Water-baptism, and the spiritual baptism, are two entirely different baptisms. The inward baptism alone is the true baptism of Christ.

Children ought not to be baptized, since they are not capable of taking any engagement upon themselves, or of making a profession of faith, or of answering to God according to the testimony of a good conscience.

Taking or receiving the Eucharist is not a perpetual obligation; it was instituted heretofore only for those who were

newly converted to the Christian religion, or for weak Christians in the beginning of their Christianity.

PART V.

RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF PAGAN NATIONS AND TRIBES.

SEC. I.—RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF THE CHINESE.

It is scarcely possible to give a distinct account of the religion of China, and to class its numerous superstitions under appropriate heads. It is indeed pretended, by some writers on the subject, that the ancient religious system of the Chinese has continued unchanged amidst all the corruptions, which have been grafted upon it during many successive ages; that this system is found to agree, in its most essential parts, with that of the Israelites, before the giving of the law by Moses; and that it may be traced back, by means of regular traditions, even to the renewal of the human race, by the grandsons of Noah. Difficult to give an accurate count of the religion of China. It is affirmed, on the contrary, by an intelligent traveller of England, that the primitive religion of China no longer exists, or exists only in a most corrupted state; that there is at present, no national, nor scarcely any state religion in the empire; and that the articles of faith are as various as the modes of worship. All that we can attempt, therefore, amidst these discordant opinions, is to present our readers with a short view, first, of the principal religious systems, which have been introduced into China at different periods, as far as can be ascertained from their own historical records; and next, of their present religious observances, as far as these have been described by later travellers in that country. All accounts of the religious opinions and ceremonies of the Chinese, previous to the time of Confucius, are mixed with fable, and full of uncertainty. Indeed, as their best existing historical documents must be regarded as his

productions, and are at least ascribed chiefly to his pen by the Chinese themselves, none of the allusions to religious practices, which are to be found in the earliest period of their history, can be considered as resting upon any authority more ancient than his. But, as the Chinese affirm the greater portion of their canonical book, Shoo-king, to have been composed long before the age of Confucius, and to have only been restored by his labours, we may proceed upon this idea, and consider the tenets expressed in this work, as the ancient religion of China.

In this view of the subject, their primitive creed seems to have contained the general doctrines of theism, with regard to the Supreme Being, whom they worshipped under various names, such as, Tien or Kien, *heaven*, Shangtien, *supreme heaven*, Shang-tee, *supreme Lord*, and Hoan-shang-tee, *sovereign and supreme Lord*. This Supreme Being they regarded as possessed of all natural and moral perfections, as exercising a minute and judicial providence over mankind, as rewarding virtue and punishing vice, even in this life, as sending calamities to warn and reform the offender, and as ready to relent, and pardon him upon his repentance. The first worship instituted in honour of the Shang-tee, consisted in prayers, accompanied with sacrifices or gifts, offered upon some natural eminence, or artificial mount, or merely in the open fields, upon an altar called *tan*, composed of a round heap of earth, or of a quantity of stones thrown together in a round form. At a very early period, however, of their history, we find them associating with the Shang-tee, or Supreme Being, a multitude of tutelary spirits as objects of worship, under the name of Shin, or Kooey-shin. In succeeding periods arose a multitude of superstitions; and the wind, the rain, the thunder, diseases, &c. were all, in like manner, personified, and addressed as divinities, while warriors, emperors, and illustrious men, became demigods. The people forgot the simple worship of the Shang-tee, and embraced every new invention of idolatry with the utmost avidity.

The most ancient of the religious sects, which have, at different periods, engrafted their superstitions upon the primitive theological system of China, is that of the Sect of Tao-tse, or sons of immortals, which was founded by a philosopher, named Lao-kiun, or Lao-tse, who was born in the province of Honan, about 600 years before Christ, and concerning whose birth a multitude of strange stories are circulated among his countrymen. His followers,

named Tao-tse, therefore, place the supreme duty and felicity of man in a state of perfect tranquillity, recommending the suppression of all violent desires and passions, the utmost moderation in every pursuit or enjoyment, and an utter indifference with regard to the past, the present, or the future.

This sect became particularly powerful under the dynasty of Song; and one of the emperors of that race carried his superstitious reverence for a celebrated teacher among them to such a length, as to command him to be worshipped under the name of Shang-tee, which had hitherto been appropriated to the Supreme Being. The sages of the nation were so greatly shocked by this act of impiety, that they predicted the ruin of that dynasty as fast approaching; and the wiser part of the learned men frequently presented strong remonstrances to different emperors against the patronage, which was bestowed upon these deceivers; but the sect of the Tao-tse continued to increase in power and numbers, under the protection of princes, the countenance of the great, and the credulity of the people; and has preserved its extensive influence even to this day, in spite even of all the attempts of the celebrated Confucius to introduce more enlightened doctrines.

Popularity of
this sect.

Confucius, or Kong-foo-tse, was born 550 years before Christ, and is regarded by the Chinese as the chief of their wise men, and as the author of their whole civil constitution. He endeavoured to restore the ancient system, and to improve the conduct of his countrymen, by exhorting them to obey the commands of heaven, to love their neighbours, and to restrain their passions. Some of his philosophical principles are, that out of nothing there cannot any thing be produced; that material bodies must have existed from all eternity; that the cause or principle of things must have had a co-existence with the things themselves; that this cause, therefore, must also be eternal, infinite, and indestructible; and that the central point of influence, from which this cause chiefly acts, is the blue firmament, (tien,) whence its emanations are spread over the universe; but neither he nor his disciples ascribe to the deity any personal existence, or represent the first cause under any distinct image: while the sun, moon, stars, and elements, are considered also as composing the firmament or tien, as the immediate agents of the deity, and as the productive powers in creation. The universe, in short, according to this philosopher, is one animated system, made up of one material substance, and of one spiritual being, of which every living thing is an emanation, and

Confucius.

to which, when separated by death from its particular material part, every living thing again returns; hence the term death is never used by his followers, but they say of a person, at his decease, that he has returned to his family. Thus he taught that the human body is composed of two principles, the one light, invisible, and ascending, the other gross, palpable, and descending; that the separation of these two principles causes the death of human beings; and that, at this period, the light and spiritual part ascends into the air, while the gross and corporeal matter sinks into the earth. He taught, further, that the spirits of those, who had performed their duty in life, were permitted to revisit their ancient habitations, and such places as might be appointed for receiving the homage of their descendants; that they have the power of conferring benefits upon their posterity; that it was thus the indispensable duty of every man to perform the sacred rites to the memory of his ancestors; and that, whosoever neglected this duty, would be punished, after death, by his spirit being rendered incapable of visiting the hall of his ancestors, and receiving the homage of his descendants. Besides the performance of these sacred rites to the memory of ancestors, the principal religious worship which he required, was, that the prince, in the name of his people, should present offerings to the tien, particularly at the two equinoxes, for the purpose of obtaining a propitious seed-time and a plentiful harvest; but, at the same time, that the deity is always best satisfied when men perform the moral duties of life, which he comprised chiefly in these two, viz. filial piety towards parents, and unreserved obedience to the will of the emperor. With these tenets was naturally connected a belief of good and evil genii, and of tutelary spirits presiding over families, towns, mountains, and other places; and while the system of Confucius was little better than atheism in the mind of the philosopher, it became a source of gross idolatry among the people, who could not comprehend the more refined notions, but, needing some visible object upon which to fix their attention, represented the tutelary spirits by images, and worshipped them by sacrifices. Confucius himself was much addicted to a species of divination or fortune-telling, and says expressly in one of his works, that the wise man ought to know future events before they happen, and that this may be done by means of lots. His tenets, in short, instead of overcoming the old errors, gave rise to new superstitions; and the chief difference between the proper followers of Confucius and those of Lao-tse, is this, that the former inculcate the duty of living among men, and endeavouring to improve them;

while the latter avoid every kind of society and occupation, and lead a frugal retired life, as their only felicity.

During the reign of the Emperor Ming-tee, of the Han dynasty, a new superstition was introduced into China, whose influence is perhaps still more extensive and pernicious in that country, than any of those by Sect of Fo. which it was preceded. One of the Tao-tse doctors had promised to a brother of the emperor's, that he would open to him a communication with the spirits; and this superstitious prince having heard of a spirit in Tien-tso, or Hindostan, named Fo, or Foe, prevailed upon the emperor, by his importunities, to send an embassy for this foreign divinity. When the officer, who was entrusted with this mission, arrived at the place of his destination, he found only two Sha-men, or priests of Fo, whom he carried to China, with some of their canonical books, and several images of the idol painted on linen. The followers of Fo describe him as the son of a prince of one of the kingdoms of India, near the line; and affirm, that as soon as he was born he stood upright, walked seven steps without assistance, and pointing to the heavens with one hand, and to the earth with the other, cried aloud, "in the heavens and the earth there is none but myself who deserves to be honoured." At the age of seventeen, he married three wives, by one of whom he had a son, named by the Chinese Moheoo-lo; but at the age of nineteen he abandoned his house and family, with all the cares of life, and committed himself to the care of four philosophers, with whom he retired to a vast desert. Being filled with the divinity at the age of thirty, he was metamorphosed into the Fo, or Pagod, as the Indians term it, and immediately thought of establishing his doctrines by miracles, which attracted numerous disciples, and spread his fame over every part of India.

When he had attained his seventy-ninth year, and perceived from his infirmities that his borrowed divinity could not exempt him from mortality, he is said to Tenets of Fo. have called his disciples together, and to have declared to them, that hitherto he had spoken to them by figurative expressions, but that now he would discover his real sentiments, and unveil the whole mystery of his wisdom, namely, that there is no other principle of things but a vacuum, or nothing; that from this nothing all things at first sprung; that to nothing they shall again return; and that thus end all our hopes and fears at once. After his decease, a multitude of fables were propagated concerning him by his followers, such as, that he was still alive, and had been born 8000 times, ap-

pearing successively under the figure of an ape, a lion, a dragon, an elephant, &c. His last words excited much dissension among his disciples, some of them resolving to adhere to his original tenets, others adopting his concluding atheistical view of things, and a third class attempting to reconcile both systems together, by making a distinction between the external and internal doctrine. The internal doctrine, to which the disciples of the idol are exhorted to aspire, is a system of the most absurd atheism; of which some of the principal tenets are, that nothing is the beginning and the end of all things; that all beings are the same, differing only in figure and qualities; that the supreme happiness of man consists in acquiring a resemblance to this principle of nothing, in accustoming himself to do nothing, to will nothing, to feel nothing, to desire nothing; that the sum of virtue and happiness is to be found in indolence and immobility, in the cessation of bodily motion, the suspension of all mental faculties, the obliteration of all feelings and desires; that when men have attained this divine insensibility, they have nothing to do with virtue or vice, rewards or punishments, providence or immortality, no changes, transmigrations, or futurities to fear, but have ceased to exist, and become perfectly like the god Fo. The external doctrine has the greatest number of followers. It teaches a great distinction between good and evil, and a state of rewards for the good, and of punishment for the wicked, after death, in places suited to the spirits of each. It acknowledges the transmigration of the soul through different bodies, till it is at length completely purified and prepared to be united to the Deity. It affirms, that the god Fo came upon this earth to expiate men's sins, and to secure them a happy regeneration in the life to come. Its practical injunctions are simply these: To pray to the god Fo, and to provide his priests with temples and other necessities, that by their penances and supplications they may procure for his worshippers the forgiveness of their sins; and to observe five precepts, viz. to kill no living creature—to take nothing that belongs to another—to commit no act of impurity—to utter no falsehood—and to drink no wine. The practice of these duties is enforced by threatenings of future punishment, especially of transmigration into the bodies of dogs, horses, rats, serpents, &c. In consequence of this doctrine, a multitude of idols have sprung up wherever the religion of Fo has prevailed; and temples have been erected to quadrupeds, birds, and reptiles, of every description, according as the god was imagined to have occupied any of their bodies in the course of his transmigration.



Puza, a goddess of the Chinese. p. 499.



Quack Jugglers in China who pretend to sell the wind. p. 508.

Fo is supposed to have lived 500 years before the time of Pythagoras; and from his followers the Grecian sage is conjectured to have learned the doctrine of the metempsychosis, when he travelled in India. The Era of Fo. worship of Fo was introduced into China A. D. 69; and is understood to have been originally the same as that of the Indian Buddha, from the evident coincidences between the history and worship of the two divinities. The Buddha of the Hindoos was the son of Ma-ya, and one of his names is Amita. The Fo of China was the son of Moy-a, and one of his names is Om-e-to, or, as it is pronounced in Japan, Amida. The Menshin, or guardian spirit of the door in China, is the same as the Ganesa of Hindostan; and in both countries, his figure, or at least the character expressing his name, is painted on the door of almost every house. The Lui-shin, or spirit of thunder of the Chinese, represented under the figure of a man with the beak and talons of an eagle, is equivalent to the Vishnu of the Hindoos, who is generally figured as riding upon an eagle, or at least attended by that bird; and it is noticed as a curious circumstance, that the same reason is assigned by the Chinese for giving an eagle's face to this idol, which Pliny adduces for the consecration of that bird to Jupiter, viz. that there is no instance known of an eagle having been killed by lightning. So, Hai-vang, king of the sea, represented in China as reposing on the waves with a fish in his hand, corresponds with the Hindoo Varuna riding on a fish; and the Indian Ganga, or goddess of the Ganges, has an exact counterpart in the Shing-moo, or holy mother of the Chinese.

Between the followers of Lao-tse and of Fo, which have always been the two prevailing sects in China, the greatest rivalship and enmity have constantly subsisted, which frequently extended to persecution and bloodshed. Whenever the court or principal eunuchs appeared to favour the one in preference to the other, the more powerful sect at the time commenced hostilities against its opponent. These contests, however, were confined to the priests of the two religions; and the people either remained neutral, or took no active part in the quarrel, which was seldom terminated but by the levelling of monasteries to the ground, and the slaughter of some thousands of priests on both sides. Since the accession of the Tartar dynasty, no particular preference or distinction has been shown to either of them; and indeed, except that the priests of Lama are paid and supported by the Tartar government, as a part of the imperial establishment, and that the principal Tartar offi-

Contests between the above sects.

cers are attached to their tenets, (separated from the absurdities grafted upon them by the Tao-tse,) the government gives no particular support to any religious sect whatever.

About the year of Christ 1070, under the dynasty of the Song, several learned men applied themselves to interpret the sacred

The system of Shao-kang-tse, or sect of the Literati. books called King; and one of them named Shao-kang-tse, distinguished by his superior erudition, became the founder of a new system. He taught first of all, that the world had a beginning, and

will come to an end, when it will be again produced, and again destroyed, in endless succession. He fixed its duration at 129,600 years, which he divided into twelve periods, each containing 10,800 years. In the first of these, the heavens were gradually created by the motion which the Tay-kee impressed upon matter, which had hitherto remained immovable; in the second, the earth was produced in the same deliberate manner; in the third, men and the other living creatures began to come into existence; and so on to the eleventh period, when all things shall be destroyed, and the world shall return into the state of chaos, from which it shall not again be evolved till the end of the twelfth period. About the year 1400, the Emperor Yong-lo, of the Ming dynasty, commanded several learned men to combine the principles of Shao-kang-tse into a system, by interpreting the books of Confucius and Meng-tse, called King. In this work they gave the name of Tay-kee (or great height) to the cause of all things, although this word is not to be found in the writings of Confucius or Meng-tse; but, from a passage in one of the commentaries of the former philosopher, they profess to derive those tenets, that Tay-kee is separated from the imperfections of nature, is an existing being, and the same with the heaven, the earth, and the five elements; that when he moves, he produces Yang, that is, subtle and active matter, such as the heavens, fire, day, that which is perfect and of the male sex; that, when he rests, he produces Yn, that is, gross and motionless matter, such as the earth, the moon, darkness, that which is imperfect and of the female sex; that, by the union of these, are produced eight elements, which, by their various combinations, form the peculiar and distinguishing nature of all bodies, the vicissitudes of the universe, the fertility or barrenness of the earth, &c. From these and similar mysticisms, the partisans of Tay-kee went on in their speculations, till they ended in atheism, by excluding from the world every supernatural cause, and admitting only an inanimate virtue or energy in union with matter. In their system of morals, they adopted more rational

principles; directed the wise man to make the public good the great object of his actions, and to extinguish his passions, that he may follow the light of reason; and explained the reciprocal duties of princes and subjects, of parents and children, of husband and wife.

None of these different systems can be said to be the prevailing creed in China; or, what is more remarkable, can be found existing pure and distinct from the rest.

The greater part of the Chinese have no decided Present religion of the Chinese. opinion whatever on the subject, and are either complete atheists, or, if they acknowledge a Supreme Being, utterly ignorant in what view he ought to be regarded; while they all combine with their peculiar sentiments the multifarious superstitions of the more popular sects. Of all these tolerated and established religious persuasions, the emperor is the supreme head; without whose permission not one of them can enjoy a single privilege or point of pre-eminence; and who can diminish or increase, at his pleasure, the number of their respective temples and priests.

The existing worship of China, then, is a confused mixture of superstitions, of which individuals receive and observe just as much as they please; and those parts of it, which the government seems to uphold, may be viewed rather as political than religious institutions. The emperors reserve to themselves the privilege of adoring the Tien, but they equally sacrifice to the spirit of the earth, the sun, or the moon, and attach themselves more or less to the notions of the Tao-tse or of Fo. While the reigning Tartar family acknowledge more particularly the faith of the Grand Lama, they nevertheless perform the established sacred rites of their predecessors, and repair to the festivals which the calendar prescribes. And, while the literati study the doctrine of the King, they are as superstitious as unbelieving, and are found with others in the temples praying to the idols.*

There are two sorts of ceremonies instituted by the Chinese in commemoration of Confucius; one of which consists entirely in prostrating themselves and striking the ground nine times with their foreheads before a certain Honours paid to Confucius. *cartridge*, or little picture, which is placed on a table encircled with lighted wax candles and divers incense pots, on which the name of this celebrated philosopher stands conspicuous in capitals. In former times, they paid this testimony of their respect to the statue of Confucius; but their

* New Edinburgh Ency. Art. China.

emperors perceiving that the people ran blindly into idolatry, and being unwilling that Confucius should be reckoned amongst the number of their idols, caused this cartridge to be substituted in all their schools, in the room of the statues of the philosopher. The mandarins perform this ceremony when they take possession of their respective posts, and the bachelors of arts when they take their degrees. The governors of all their cities, and all the Literati, are obliged once in fifteen days to pay these public honours to Confucius in the name of the whole nation.

In regard to the worship paid to Confucius, the sect of the Literati differs widely from that of Fo, &c., in which the Bonzes

Honours of only are the priests and sacrificators; but among the sect of the the Literati, it is the peculiar province of the Literati. mandarins, viceroys, and even the emperor him-

self, to offer up sacrifices in honour of Confucius and their ancestors. What may be properly called the religious worship of Confucius, consists in some peculiar testimonies of their veneration, and some oblations made before a tablet or a pyramid, which is gilt all over, and deposited in a ceremonial manner on an altar. On this tablet is written the following inscription in characters of gold: *Here is the throne of the soul of our most holy and most illustrious prime minister Confucius.* The sacrifice does not consist barely in devoting to his service, bread, wine, wax-tapers, and perfumes; for they present him frequently with a sheep and a piece of taffety, which they set on fire in commemoration of him. All these ceremonies are solemnized in an edifice consecrated to Confucius, not as an academy set apart for the examination of young students, or their advancement in the arts and sciences, no business of that nature being there transacted; on the contrary, censers, candlesticks, and tables, are placed in the form of altars, and in short, all other implements and materials proper for the decoration of a temple. The model of these chapels is exactly the same as that of the temples of their idols, and the name which they give them in the Chinese language, signifies a temple.

Their most solemn sacrifice, in commemoration of their ancestors, is celebrated on the fourteenth day of August. "This ceremony," says Father Moralez, who was an

Sacrifice to eye witness of it, "was performed in a temple, their ancestors. over the door of which were written these two words, *Kia Cheu, the temple of the forefathers, &c.* The pavement was all of porcelain clay; the temple was wainscoted all round, and adorned with pillars, &c. There were

three porticoes, fronting different ways, and beyond them was a kind of a yard. There were two steps likewise to go up to the temple. Six tables had been prepared for the sacrifice, on which were set meats ready dressed, and raw flesh, with fruits, flowers, and perfumes, which were burnt in divers little chafing-dishes.

“ At the upper end of the temple were the inscriptions of their ancestors artfully disposed, and each in its proper niche. The images of their grandfathers were fastened on each side to the walls. In the yard, several carpets were spread on the ground, upon which lay large heaps of papers, cut in the shape of the coin of their country, which they imagined would in the other world be converted into real money, and passing current there, serve to redeem the souls of their relations. In short, in one corner of the yard, they had erected a large tree, the bottom of which was surrounded with brushwood, or chips, which were set on fire, and burnt during the celebration of the sacrifice, in order that the souls of their dead might be accommodated with sufficient light.

“ The licentiati, who assisted at this sacrifice, were dressed like doctors on a solemn festival. One of them officiated as priest, two others as deacon and sub-deacon, and a third as master of the ceremonies. Several other doctors performed divers other ministerial offices, as that of acolytes, &c. Those who had not taken their doctor's degree, appeared in their best clothes, all regularly ranged and divided into divers choirs at the lower end of the temple on each side of the doors. The sacrifice began after the following manner: as soon as the priest was seated with his two assistants on each side of him, upon a carpet that covered the entire middle of the yard, the master of the ceremonies ordered, that all the congregation should fall down upon their knees, and prostrate themselves to the ground; then he ordered them to rise again, which was accordingly done with great decency and order. The priest and his attendants with great gravity approached the place of the inscriptions and images of their dead, and perfumed them with frankincense. The master of the ceremonies then ordered *to be offered up the wine of blessing and true happiness*. At the same time, the attendants gave the wine to the priest, who took up the chalice with both his hands, elevated it, then set it down again, and emptied it. The priest and his assistants then turned their faces towards the congregation. He who officiated as deacon, pronounced, with an audible voice, all the benefits and indulgences, which those who were present might expect as the result of their attend-

ance. *Know ye, says he, that all you who have assisted at this solemn sacrifice, may be very well assured of receiving some particular favours from your deceased ancestors, in return for these grateful oblations, which you have in this public manner now made unto them. You shall be honoured and respected by all men, live to a good old age, and enjoy all the blessings which this life can afford.* After this declaration, they set fire to their whole store of paper-money, and so the sacrifice concluded." These ceremonies, it must be allowed, bear some affinity to several made use of by the Roman Catholics; but we shall, in this instance, merely notice, that the Chinese, before they go into the temple to sacrifice to their ancestors, utter three dreadful groans, as if they were just expiring.

The whole formulary of this worship is set down in the Chinese ritual, with the prayers and supplications, which ought to be made to their deceased ancestors. Nothing, in the opinion of the Chinese, can be more efficacious, and have a more prevailing power, than these acts of devotion. The merits of the dead, according to them, are so great, that they may with justice stand in competition with those of Heaven itself. They imagine, that their souls sit for ever on the right and left hand of the Divine Majesty. In a word, it is on the due performance of this religious worship that the Chinese ground all their expectations of future happiness. They flatter themselves, that by virtue of these testimonies of their veneration for their ancestors, they, their descendants, shall be possessed of innumerable blessings.

Temples are also built in all the cities of China, in commemoration of the first five emperors, also of some other illustrious men, and their public benefactors. When

Temples. their emperors die, they are immediately deified, and honoured as gods; for it is pretended, that after their decease they obtain the power of aiding and assisting all those who make their supplications to them. Although they do not admit, that whilst living they possess that power, yet they have their picture or tablet in their temples, which is revered according to the same manner as those of their ancestors, and on which is written in large characters, *May the Emperor of China live many thousands of years.* They sacrifice and bow the knee before this inscription.

They imagine the genius called *Chin-hoan*, to be the guardian deity of their provinces, cities, and courts of judicature; and temples are erected to his honour, throughout the whole empire. The mandarins,

Chin-hoan.

when they take possession of any important post, are obliged in the first place to do homage to the Chin-hoan of that peculiar city or province, which is committed to their care, and to take a formal oath, that they will faithfully discharge the trust reposed in them, and consult him about the most effectual means to perform their duty with success. This homage must be repeated twice a year, under the penalty of being discarded, in case of their neglect. These Chin-hoans are much the same as guardian angels; but the Chinese acknowledge a divinity in them inferior to that of the first principle, although they admit, at the same time, that formerly they were men as well as themselves.

The Chinese pay divine adoration to the sun, moon, and stars, and ascribe to a certain *Causay*, not only the government of the lowest part of the heavens, but likewise the power of life and death. There are Deities. three ministering spirits, who are subservient to him, viz. *Tanquam*, *Tsuiquam*, and *Teiquam*. The first sends down his rain to refresh the earth, the second is their Neptune, or god of the sea, and the last presides over births, is the director of all their rural concerns, and their god of war. The goddess *Quonin* presides over all their household affairs, and the products of the earth. They represent her with an infant on each side of her; one of them holding a cup in his hand, and the other having his hands closed one within another. Chang-ko is the goddess whom the bachelors of the sect of the Literati particularly worship, as the Greeks and the Romans did Minerva. The idol or deity, which presides over mirth and voluptuousness is called *Ninifo*, who is looked upon as a *Xin*, and worshipped as such by the devotees; though he presides equally over criminal, as well as innocent diversions. They have also a Spirit, which is the grand tutelar genius of China, that presides over immortality, and which in all probability is no other than their god of war, of whom we have already spoken, or Kito, whom the Chinese soldiery honour as their patron. Finally, we must not omit to mention Lin-cing, whose peculiar province, however, we are at a loss to determine; and Hoaguam, who presides over the eyes.

Puzza, who is always represented sitting on a flower of the lotos, or rather, according to Kircher, upon a turnsol, is called by him, the Isis, or Cybele of the Chinese.

"She has sixteen hands, every one of which is Puzza. mysteriously armed with knives, swords, halberts, books, fruit, plants, wheels, goblets, vials," &c. The following is the traditional history of this deity, as given by the Chinese

bonzes. Three nymphs in the days of yore came down from heaven to wash themselves in a river. They had scarcely got into the water, before the herb called *Vesicari* appeared on one of their garments, with its coral fruit upon it, and they could not imagine whence it could have proceeded. The nymph was unable to resist the temptation of tasting such charming fruit, but became pregnant by indulging her curiosity, and was delivered of a boy, whom she took care of till he was of age, then left him to pursue the dictates of his own inclinations, and returned to heaven. He afterwards became a great man, a law-giver, and a conqueror. "The learned amongst the Chinese ascribe to Puzza, such a number of arms," says Kircher, "in all probability to insinuate, that she is the mother of all the gods; and she is seated on a flower of the lotos, surrounded with water, to denote, that as this herb is always in the water, and swimming on its surface, so by the assistance of this element, nature contributes towards the production and fruitfulness of all things."

The god, idol, or genius, known by the name of *Quante-cong* was the founder of the Chinese empire, the inventor of several of their arts, and their great lawgiver. *Quante-cong*. He introduced the custom of wearing decent apparel amongst the Chinese, who before went almost naked; he brought them under some regulation and form of government, and prevailed on them to reside in towns, &c. Such useful and extraordinary inventions entitled him to a stature larger than the generality of mankind; and they have represented him accordingly as a prodigiously strong giant.

We now come to treat of their dragons, which have a considerable share in the superstitious worship of the Chinese.

Worship of The arms and ensigns of the empire are composed of dragons. The Chinese make representations of them upon their apparel, books, and linen, and in their pictures. Fohi, the inventor of sixty-four several symbols, first established this superstitious regard for dragons. He thought it requisite, with a view only of giving a sanction to these symbols, by which he attempted to render his system efficacious, to call in the marvellous to his aid and assistance. Fohi accordingly assured the populace, that he had seen these symbols upon the back of a dragon, that rushed suddenly upon him from the bottom of a lake. "This emperor," says Father Martini, "rather made choice of the dragon than any other creature whatsoever, because it is looked upon amongst the Chinese as the most propitious omen. The emperor's dragons were represented with five talons to each foot. If any

other person thought fit to make use of this animal as a symbol, he was charged on pain of death to represent it with no more than four." Whether Fohi was the first that inspired them with this superstitious regard for the dragon, or whether he found the superstition previously established, it is at least evident, that it is of a very ancient standing amongst the Chinese, although not by any means to be justified. The Chinese not only imagine, that the dragon is the source and fountain from whence flows all the good that ever befalls them; but that it is he who bestows rain and fair weather upon them in their seasons; it is he, who thunders in the clouds, and rides in the whirlwinds. The superstition of searching with indefatigable industry and vast expense the veins of this enormous beast, when they dig their sepulchres, is owing to the conceit that the good or ill-fortune of their families entirely depends upon it.

The Bonzes are the priests of the Fohists, and it is one of their established tenets, that good and evil are not blended nor huddled together in the other world, but that, Priests, &c. after death, rewards are prepared and allotted for the righteous, and punishments for the wicked. The other tenets of the Bonzes are, make charity your habitual practice; treat us with reverence and respect; maintain and support us as well as you are able; erect monasteries and temples for us, that our prayers and voluntary penances may deliver you from those punishments, which your sins have deserved; burn all the gilt paper and silk clothes you can procure; for in the other world, they will be converted into real gold and silver, and apparel, and will be faithfully delivered to your deceased parents for their sole use and property. Unless you comply with these injunctions, you will be cruelly tormented after death, and be subject to an endless train of disagreeable transmigrations. You shall be transformed into rats, mice, asses, and mules.

Some of the Chinese monks are dressed in black, and have their chaplets like those of the Roman Catholics; but they must not be confounded with the other Bonzes. There are others likewise, who are dressed in yellow from head to foot, and furnished, as the former, with a large chaplet. These two colours distinguish the two different orders of monks, who are sectaries of Lanzu. These monks, like those of the Catholic Church, always go abroad, two and two together. The Bonzes, according to Father Le Comte, are no better than a gang of dissolute idle fellows, whom indolence, hunger, and ease, prompt to herd together, and live upon the charitable

contributions of well-disposed persons. All their aims are to excite the populace to commiserate their abject condition. The same father gives us a particular account of their several tricks and impostures. When they find the common arts of address fail them, they have immediate recourse to public acts of penance, which are always looked upon as highly meritorious by the unthinking populace, and effectually move their pity and compassion. Of this gang are those, who drag heavy chains after them thirty feet long, and go from door to door, often repeating in a drawling canting tone, "It is by these austere penances that we make atonement for your sins." And those likewise who plant themselves in the most public places of resort, and in the highways, to receive the charity of those who pass by them, knocking their heads against large flint stones till their imposture proves successful. Others set some particular drugs on fire upon their heads, to attract the eyes of the crowd upon them, and excite their compassion. Those likewise may very justly be reckoned amongst the number of mendicant devotees, whose heads have been wilfully deformed and moulded, on purpose, into a conical form. They appear in the streets and highways with a large chaplet about their necks, and are reckoned by the vulgar as extraordinary saints. There are other monks, however, of the Mendicant order, who beg in public, without being guilty of any such self-violence.

Another way of raising contributions for the Chinese monks is, by prevailing on those who pass by to write their names in a kind of memorandum-book which one of them offers to their benefactors for that purpose. Amongst this order may likewise be reckoned those vagabonds, who amuse the public with their legerdemain. There are some of them, who with undaunted courage will get on the backs of tigers tamed for that purpose, and ride from town to town, and place to place, without the least apprehension of danger from those savage beasts, though they are neither bridled nor fettered. These impostors have always a large retinue of mendicants, who act the part of the devotees, and penitents, and who bestow on each other severe blows on the head, by way of devotion.

Among this mendicant crew, there are some who live like hermits, retired in rocks and caverns; for whom the devotees make large voluntary contributions, and consult them, as they would an oracle. As the Chinese encourage and support several distinct orders of these pious drones, so there are various kinds of discipline observed amongst them. Some are collected into a society, live in cloisters, and in a state of celi-

bacy; being obliged to abstain from flesh, fish, wine, and women. They are maintained out of the annual revenue, established by the government for the support of all convents in general, and by the charitable contributions of the people. Some of these monks are, however, sufficiently diligent and ingenious to maintain themselves by their own manual operations; the other monks are extracted from the very dregs of the populace, who, in their infancy were sold for slaves, and who in all probability constitute, out of their despicable body, the major part of the before-mentioned vagabonds. One peculiar employment of the Bonzes, who are Fohists, is to attend and assist at all funeral solemnities; whilst those of the sect of Lanzu take upon themselves the office of exorcists, pretend to find out the philosopher's stone, and to foretel all future events.

There are four several orders of this sect of Lanzu, who are distinguished by four several colours, viz. black, white, yellow, and red. They have one principal, or general, who has several provincials, subordinate to, and dependent on him, and they live upon the established revenue, and the charity of the devotees. When they beg about the streets, they repeat some peculiar prayers, which the devotees pay for the advantage of, viz. an absolute remission of all their sins. These priests or monks are assistants likewise at all funeral solemnities. They are enjoined not to marry during the time they keep their solemn vow; but by way of recompense, they have the privilege of abandoning it, whenever they think it convenient.

A monk, who is found guilty of fornication, during the time of his vow, is punished most severely. They bore a hole in his neck with a hot iron, and thrust a chain through the wound, of about sixty feet long, and in that deplorable condition, and naked as he was born, lead him all over the city, till he has collected a considerable sum of money, for the sole service of the convent to which he belongs. Another monk who follows him, lashes him severely, whenever he offers to lay hold of the chain to mitigate his pain.

Independently of the Bonzes, there are some nuns, who make a vow of perpetual virginity. These female devotees have their heads closely shaved, but their number is inconsiderable, in comparison with that of the monks. The latter (at least such among them as are of the sect of Fo) are obliged to let their beards and hair grow. The monks of the sect of Lanzu, or Fo, and both of them, in all probability, assume the power of calling down the rain at pleasure, and are obliged to perform it when required. Dapper, in his extracts relating to

China, tells us, that a Bonze, who undertakes that it shall rain, is threatened hard to be bastinadoed, if he fail of producing rain within six days.

The feast of the Lanterns is the most remarkable of the Chinese festivals. This is celebrated the fifteenth day of the first month; every one sets out some lantern, or another, but of various prices, according as their circumstances will best admit; some of them are valued at ten thousand crowns, on account of the decorations about them, and are from twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter. They are a kind of halls, or spacious apartments, in which they can make sumptuous entertainments, take their rest, receive visits, act plays, and have balls and assemblies. These lanterns are illuminated with an infinite number of wax-candles, and surrounded with bonfires. The Chinese ascribe the rise of this festival to an unhappy misfortune, which happened in the family of a certain mandarin, whose daughter, as she was walking one evening on the bank of a river, fell in and was drowned. The disconsolate father ran to her assistance attended by all his domestics. In order to find her, he put out to sea, with a vast number of lanterns along with him. All the inhabitants of the place followed him with lighted flambeaux. The whole night was spent in search after her; but, alas! to no manner of purpose. The only consolation the mandarin had, was to find himself beloved, and that his neighbours were officious to assist him. The year following, on the same day of the month, bonfires were made upon the river side, &c. This ceremony was annually observed; and at that time, every one lighted up lanterns, till by degrees it grew into an established custom. Others ascribe the origin of this Chinese festival to an extravagant project of one of their emperors, who formerly proposed to shut himself up with his concubines in a magnificent palace, which he erected on purpose, and illuminated with pompous lanterns, that he might have the pleasure, if we may credit the Chinese history, of beholding a new sky, as a canopy over his head, for ever illuminated, always calm and serene, which might make him forget in time the various revolutions of the old world. These irregularities caused an insurrection amongst his subjects, who demolished his costly and magnificent palace; and in order to transmit to posterity the remembrance of his shameful conduct, hung out the lanterns all over the town. This custom was annually repeated, and in process of time became an established solemn festival.

The Festival of Agriculture, the establishment of which is



A Chinese Begging Friar. p. 502.



Begging devotees of China and Jugglers mounted on tame Tigers.
p. 502.



ascribed to an emperor, who flourished about a hundred and eighty years before the nativity of our Blessed Saviour, is celebrated likewise with considerable solemnity. In every town throughout the whole empire, when the sun is in the middle of Aquarius, "one of the chief magistrates being crowned with flowers, and surrounded with musicians, and a crowd of people, provided with lighted flambeaux, streamers, and colours, marches in procession out of the eastern gate of the city. Several persons follow him, who carry on levers, various images composed of wood and pasteboard, set off and embellished with silk and gold, representing the ancient histories that relate to agriculture. The streets are hung with tapestry, and beautified with triumphal arches. The magistrate then advances to the east, as if he were going to meet the new season, when a kind of pageant appears, in the form of a cow, made of burnt clay, of such an enormous size, that forty men are scarcely able to carry it; and on the back of it sits a beautiful boy alive, who represents the genius of husbandry in a careless dress, with one leg bare, and the other covered with a kind of buskin. This youth never ceases from lashing the cow. Two peasants, loaded with all the various implements made use of in tillage, march immediately after him. All these ceremonies are emblematical. The incessant lashes, which the youth gives the cow, denote the constant application which is required for all rural labours; his having one leg bare, the other buskined, is the symbol of their hurry and diligence, which scarcely affords them time to dress themselves, before they go to work. As soon as this magistrate is arrived with his pompous retinue of attendants at the emperor's palace, all the flowers and other embellishments, with which the monstrous cow is dressed, are taken off; after that, her belly is opened, from whence several little cows, composed of the same materials, are taken out, which the emperor distributes amongst his ministers of state, in order to remind them of the care which is requisite in all affairs relating to husbandry, and to admonish his subjects never to let any piece of ground lie fallow, and to avoid idleness, which is the inlet to all misfortunes. On this day they are encouraged to the practice of industry, by the royal example of the emperor himself, who according to the ancient practice, made the bread, which was peculiarly appropriated for the service of their sacrifices, out of that part of the harvest, which he had gathered in with his own hands.

The Chinese celebrate likewise their New-year's day with considerable pomp, and sumptuous preparations. At that time

New-Year's Day. there is a perfect cessation from all manner of business; the posts are stopped, and all their courts of judicature throughout the empire are shut up. The Chinese call these vacations *the shutting up their seals*, because at that time they lock up the seals which belong to each particular court in a strong box kept for that purpose. Every body then makes merry, and partakes of the general joy. As the Chinese are superstitious to the last degree, in respect to the observance of particular days, they are obliged to make a formal choice of one day for shutting up their seals, and another for opening them again. The mathematical court, the members of which are the proper intendants of their lots, and choice of days, settle and determine the affair of their seals some considerable time before their new year commences. The choice and determination made by this court are communicated in due time to all the provinces; so that this peculiar ceremony of shutting up and opening the seals is performed on the very same day throughout the whole empire. The Chinese on this grand festival of their new year, take particular care to bring out their gods, and plant them as commodiously as may be, over their respective doors. These idols are called their *Portal Gods*; and though this custom be observed indeed for the most part on all their festivals, yet it is more particularly practised at this season than at any other.

The pyramidal towers have always, according to the relations of Father Kircher, Le Comte, Dapper, and several other Pagods. historians, some pagod adjacent to them; for which reason there is a communication between the celebrated porcelain tower, and the edifice, which the Chinese have distinguished by the title of the Temple of Remembrance. There is such a variety of these temples, that they are almost innumerable. The Bonzes, and other persons of the same stamp, reside in them, and live either on the settled revenues of them, or on such other emoluments as their art and industry can procure. They are likewise appointed for the accommodation of travellers; and as such, bear a very near affinity to the Turkish caravansaries. The inner part of the temple is embellished with several images and idols; some of which are their real deities or genii; and others only symbols or hieroglyphics, after the manner of the Egyptians. The walls of these pagods are generally made hollow, and full of little niches, for the more convenient situation of their idols, which are mostly represented in basso relievo. The pagod is illuminated with a vast variety of lamps, which burn night and day in honour of the dead. In the centre stands an altar, and

on the table belonging to it an idol of gigantic size, to which the temple is peculiarly devoted. This monstrous idol has several others of a more moderate size, who stand round him, in the quality of guards. In general, a hollow bamboo, which is both long and thick, and encloses several lesser ones, on which are written divers predictions in Chinese characters, is placed before the principal idol. Censers, in which incense is for ever burning, are placed on each side of the altar. At the front of it is a wooden bowl, for no other use but to receive their oblations. The altar is painted all over with a beautiful red, which colour is appropriated to those things only which are sacred.

It is in one of the pagods that the Emperor himself offers up his sacrifices with extraordinary pomp and magnificence. No procession that is ever made in Europe is more grand and solemn, than this public act of the emperor's devotion. Sacrifices of
the emperor. Four and twenty trumpeters, dressed with large golden rings or hoops, four and twenty drummers, four and twenty officers with varnished or gilt staves, one hundred soldiers with rich and magnificent halberts, a hundred mace-bearers, and two principal officers, march before him. This kind of van-guard is followed by four hundred lantern-bearers, four hundred link-men, two hundred lance-bearers, adorned with large locks of silk, four and twenty standards, on which are painted the signs of the zodiac, and fifty-six other signs, which represent the celestial constellations. After them two hundred large gilt fans are carried, embellished with the figures of dragons and other living creatures; four and twenty large magnificent umbrellas, and after them, his imperial majesty's buffet, supported by his gentlemen-officers, the whole furniture of which is solid gold.

At the close of this pompous march the Emperor himself appears on horseback, dressed in the most gorgeous apparel, surrounded with ten white sumpter horses, whose trappings are all embellished with gold and precious stones, attended by a hundred guards, and several pages of honour. An umbrella is held over the head of the Emperor, which secures him from all the injuries of the weather, and is embellished with all the costly curiosities, that the most lively imagination can possibly devise. Several princes of the blood, and mandarins of the first order, and other persons of the highest quality and distinction, dressed in their robes of state, follow his imperial majesty. After them march five hundred young noblemen, attended by a thousand footmen, thirty-six porters bearing on their shoulders an open chair, like a triumphal car, a hundred

and twenty other porters bearing a covered chair, four chariots, some drawn by elephants and others by horses. Each chair and chariot is attended by fifty servants all richly dressed, and all the elephants as well as the horses are caparisoned with the most magnificent housings.

The whole procession is closed by two thousand mandarins, and two thousand military officers. As there is no variation in this pompous solemnity, and as every one is fully apprised that the ceremony will always be celebrated in the same pompous manner, the Emperor is at no extravagant expense to support the grandeur of it; so that whenever he is disposed to perform his public sacrifices, his subjects in general are always ready to attend him.

Independently of the almanacks, calendars, and other little books, which their juggling empirics impose upon the devotees, and good old women, as infallible guides

Divination. for their future conduct, there are others who treat of divination by numbers, circles, and figures, by palmistry, dreams, and physiognomy. Some of these vagabonds pretend to instruct the female sex, how to have children soon and with success. Others profess to sell the wind, as it is practised in the north of Sweden, &c. These last-mentioned quacks hunt always in couples. One of them with a very grave and demure countenance carries on his right shoulder a bag, in which his airy commodity is inclosed, out of which he delivers, at the price agreed on, such a quantity as the credulous purchaser imagines he shall have occasion for. In his left hand he carries a hammer, with which he strikes the ground in a formal manner, in order, as he pretends, to make the genius or spirit of the wind ascend, who, if you give credit to their assertions, rides conspicuously in the air in a human shape, borne on the wings of some bird of note.

The ceremony, as it is instituted and appointed by the Chinese ritual, for the conjuration or raising up of spirits, consists

Conjuration of Spirits. in pouring a certain quantity of wine on the figure of a man composed of straw. But nothing can be more whimsical than the manner in which they consult their domestic idols. They take two little sticks, on one side flat, and on the other round, and tie them fast together with thread; and having made their humble supplications to the idol, with all imaginable fervency and devotion, they throw the sticks down before it with a full assurance that their petitions will be graciously heard and answered. If they accidentally fall on the flat side, they then expostulate with their god; however, they proceed to cast the lots a

second time; and if on this repetition, they prove as unsuccessful as before, they resent their ill treatment, and proceed from words to blows. Notwithstanding all this, they are seldom discouraged, but cast their lots over and over again, till at last they prove propitious. Sometimes they throw these little sticks into a pot, and after they have drawn them out, consult some book of conjuration, to know whether their lots be fortunate or unfortunate.

There are other divinations of the Chinese which consist in a curious inquiry into the motion of tortoises, the flight and noise of some particular birds, the various cries or sounds of beasts, their accidental rencounters in a morning, &c. Several who profess themselves adepts in these superstitious practices, reside in solitary dens, and gloomy caverns. These people, however, do not make prognostications their sole study and employment, for they are very assiduous in their search after the philosopher's stone, in the composition of philtres, and other secrets, equally pernicious.

The Chinese, when they are determined to marry, have not the liberty to consult their own inclinations. They are obliged to declare their intention to their relations, or to some old women, who make it their Marriage. trade (if the expression may be allowed) to be match-makers, and who are well paid for their deceitful offices. The wedding day having arrived, the bride is carried in a chair of state, preceded by several musicians, and followed by the bridegroom and several relations. The bride brings no other portion than her wedding-garments, with some other clothes, and a few household-goods. The bridegroom attends her to his own door. He opens the chair of state, in which before she was closely shut up, and conducting her into a private apartment, recommends her to the care of several ladies invited to the wedding, who spend the whole day together in feasting, and other innocent amusements, whilst the bridegroom follows the same example amongst his male friends and acquaintance.

Gentil informs us, that the young ladies receive their portions from their future husbands, one part of which is paid down, on the execution of the marriage articles, and the other a little before the nuptials are solemnized. The bridegroom, moreover, in addition to this dowry, makes several valuable presents of silks, fruits, wine, &c. to the relations of his mistress. The intended bride and bridegroom never see each other till their nuptials, which are always carried on by match-makers, and are fully concluded on both sides, so that

nothing remains to complete them but the wedding ceremony. When that is over, the bridegroom, after several particular ceremonies, presents a wild duck to his father-in-law, whose servants carry it directly to the bride, as a further pledge and testimony of the bridegroom's love and affection. After this, both parties are introduced into each other's company, for the first time; a long thick veil, however, even then conceals the beauty or deformity of the bride, from the eyes of the bridegroom. "They salute each other, and on their knees with reverence, adore the heavens, the earth, and the spirits. After this, the bride's father gives an elegant entertainment at his own house; the bride then unveils her face, salutes her husband, who examines all her features, with the utmost attention. She waits with fear and impatience to know the result of his accurate survey, and endeavours to read in his eyes the opinion he has formed of her. He salutes her in his turn, and after the bride has kneeled down four times before him, and he twice before his bride, they both sit down together at table. Meanwhile, the father of the bridegroom gives a sumptuous entertainment to his friends and relations, in another room; and the bride's mother, in the same manner, entertains her female relations, and the wives of her husband's friends, in her own apartment. After these repasts are over, the bride and bridegroom are conducted into their bedchamber, without the former so much as having seen her husband's father or his mother. But the day following she pays them a visit, in a very formal and ceremonious manner, when another public entertainment is prepared, at which she takes upon herself the office of entertaining the guests. She waits upon her mother-in-law at table, and eats her leavings, as a testimony that she is no stranger, but one of the family; for it is a constant custom amongst them, never to offer even to the servants of strangers the fragments, which are taken from their own table.

"The solemnization of their nuptials is always preceded by three days' mourning, during which they abstain from all manner of gay amusements. The reason on which this custom is grounded, is that the Chinese look upon the marriage of their children as an image or representation of their own death, because at such time they become their successors, as it were beforehand. The friends and relations of the father never congratulate him on this occasion, and in case they make him any presents, they never take the least notice of the intended nuptials."

The Chinese in their mourning lay aside yellow and blue

which, in their opinion, are gay colours, and dress themselves only in white, ■ colour destined by them to express their sorrow from the earliest times. No Mourning. one, from the prince to the meanest mechanic, ever deviates from this established custom. In general, they wear girdles made of hemp. Their mourning for all their relations is of longer or shorter duration, according to proximity of blood.

As soon as ever a person has expired, some relation or friend immediately takes his coat, ascends to the top of the house, and turning his face towards the north, calls as loudly as possible upon the soul of the deceased three times successively. He addresses himself to the heaven, the earth, and the mid-region of the air. After which, he folds the coat up, and turns his face towards the south; then he unfolds the coat again, and spreads it over the deceased, there to remain three days untouched, in expectation that his soul will resume its former state. The same ceremony is observed out of their cities, for a person who has unfortunately been killed.

When a Chinese dies, an altar is immediately erected in some particular room in the house, which in general is hung with mourning. An image or representation of the deceased, is laid upon the altar, with all the decorations before mentioned, and the corpse behind it in a coffin. Every one that approaches it, to testify their concern, or pay their compliments of condolence, bow the knee four times before the image, and prostrate themselves to the very ground; but before these genuflexions, they make their oblations of perfumes. The children of the deceased, if there be any who survive him, stand dressed in mourning close by the coffin; and his wives and relations weep aloud, with the female mourners who are hired, behind a curtain which conceals them. It is to be observed, that according to the Chinese ritual, as soon as the corpse of the deceased is laid in the coffin, there must be as much corn, rice, silver, and gold, put into his mouth, as his circumstances will admit of. They put likewise a quantity of nails, and several scissors tied up in purses, and laid at each corner of the coffin, that he may cut them as occasion shall require.

The day on which the funeral is to be solemnized, all the relations and friends meet at the house of the deceased, dressed in mourning, who, together with the priests, form the funeral procession, which is attended with the images or pictures of men, women, elephants, tigers, &c. all destined to be burnt, for the benefit of the party deceased. The priests, and those who are hired to read prayers, or make a funeral panegyric

over the grave, bring up the rear. Several persons march in the front, with brazen censers, of a considerable size, on their shoulders. The children of the deceased march directly after the corpse, on foot, leaning upon sticks, which is an expression, at least an external one, of sorrow and concern.

After the children come the wives, and the more distant relations of the deceased, in a close litter. A great variety of ceremonies attend this procession; but we shall only take notice, that it is accompanied with the sound of tymbals, drums, flutes, and other instrumental music. As soon as the coffin has advanced about thirty yards from the house, a considerable quantity of red sand is thrown upon it.

Each family has a sepulchre belonging to it, which is erected on some little hill, or place adjacent, embellished with figures and other decorations, like those at the procession. Epitaphs and other inscriptions are also in use among them.

SEC. II.—RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF THE JAPANESE.

The most prevalent religious sects in Japan are those of *Sinto* and *Budso*. That of *Sinto*, which is the most ancient, though its adherents are now least numerous, is conceived to have originated from Babylonian emigrants, and to have been originally very simple and pure in its tenets. Its followers acknowledge a Supreme Being, who inhabits the highest heavens, and who is far too great to require their worship; but they admit a multitude of inferior divinities, who exercise dominion over the earth, water, air, &c., and have great power in promoting the happiness or misery of the human race. They have some conception of the soul's immortality; and believe that a happy abode immediately under heaven is assigned to the spirits of the virtuous, while those of the wicked shall be doomed to wander to and fro under the firmament. Their practical precepts are directed to inculcate a virtuous life, and obedience to the laws of the sovereign. They abstain from animal food, and are reluctant to shed innocent blood, or even to touch a dead body. Their churches contain no visible idols, nor any representation of the Supreme Being; but sometimes a small image is kept in a box, to represent some inferior deity, to whom the temple is consecrated. In the centre of the temple is frequently placed a large mirror, made of well polished cast metal, which is designed to represent the worshippers, that in like manner as their personal blemishes are therein displayed,

so are their secret evil thoughts exposed to the all-searching eyes of the immortal gods. The worshippers approach these temples with great devotion of manner, and with the most scrupulous attention to cleanliness of person and apparel. Advancing reverently to the mirror, they bow themselves to the ground, prefer their prayers, present their offerings, and then repair to their amusements. The kubo professes himself to belong to this sect, and is bound to make a visit annually in person, or by an ambassador, to one of their temples, to perform his devotion and present gifts.

Budso's doctrine was brought originally from the coast of Malabar, and is considered the same with that of Budha in Hindostan. Passing from China into Japan, it became blended with that of Sinto, and gave birth Sect of Budso. to a monstrous mixture of superstition. Its peculiar tenets are, that the souls of men and of beasts are equally immortal, and that the souls of the wicked are condemned to undergo punishment and purification, by passing after death into the bodies of the lower animals. There are many other sects, very opposite in their tenets and observances; but they are said to live together in great harmony, or rather to share in all their mutual superstitions. The Dairi, or ecclesiastical sovereign, seems to be the general head of all those different sects, and appoints the principal priests throughout the country. Every sect has its respective church and peculiar idols, which are commonly remarkable for their uncouth and hideous form. Thunberg mentions one colossal wooden image, which measures ten yards across the shoulders, and affords room for six men to sit upon its wrist. The inferior divinities are innumerable, as almost every trade has its tutelary god, and in one temple not less than thirty-three thousand three hundred and thirty-three are said to be ranged around the supreme deity. The temples are commonly built in the suburbs of the town, on the most elevated and suitable spots, to which are frequently attached beautiful avenues of cypress trees, with handsome gates. The idols are usually exhibited upon an altar surrounded with flowers, incense, and other decorations. They are filled with the lower or secular priests, who attend to keep them clean, to light the lamps and fires, to present the flowers and incense, and to admit worshippers at all times of the day. Even strangers are allowed to enter, and sometimes to lodge in the temples. To some of the more noted churches it is common to perform pilgrimages, especially to the temples of Tsie, the most ancient in the empire, and almost completely decayed with age, notwithstanding the utmost care to preserve

its ruins. Its sole ornaments are a mirror, denoting that nothing can be hid from the supreme being, and slips of white paper hung round the walls, to signify that nothing but what is pure should approach his presence. To this place, the emperor must send an ambassador, on the first day of every month, and every individual must make a visit, at least once in the course of his life. Such a pilgrimage, besides its merit, is rewarded with an indulgence or remission of sins for a whole year. There are also in Japan orders of monks or nuns; one of which consists of blind persons, a kind of beggars dispersed over the empire, and another, called monks of the mountain, are a species of fortune-tellers and quack-doctors, who are bound to live on roots and herbs, to practise constant ablutions, and to traverse deserts and mountains once in a year. There are likewise several philosophical sects in the country, who disclaim all external worship; one of the most celebrated of which adopts the tenets of the Chinese Confucius, and resembles in its general principles the ancient school of Epicurus. Its followers acknowledge a kind of *anima mundi*, but limit the existence of man to the present life; and inculcate the general practice of virtue, but allow and even applaud the commission of suicide. Almost immediately after the discovery of Japan by the Portuguese, the Christian religion was introduced into the country by the Jesuit missionaries in the year 1549, and made such rapid progress, that several princes of the empire were soon ranked among its converts; and about the year 1582, a public embassy was sent from the Japanese court with letters and valuable presents to the Roman pontiff. But the Portuguese who had settled in great numbers in Japan, intoxicated by the extent of their commerce, and the success of their religion, became so obnoxious to the natives by their avaricious and domineering conduct, that the representations of the heathen priests became at length sufficiently powerful to procure a prohibition from the emperor against the new religion, which threatened to overturn all the ancient institutions of the country. A violent persecution was commenced against the Christians, of whom twenty thousand are said to have been put to death in the year 1590. Still did the number of proselytes continue to increase, and in the years 1591 and 1592, twelve thousand were converted and baptized. One of the emperors, named Kubo Fide Jori, with his whole court and army, embraced the Christian name; and had the Portuguese settlers in the country acted with ordinary prudence and gentleness, their cause must have triumphed; but the insolence of some of their prelates, to some priests of the

blood, became so insupportable, that a new persecution arose in the year 1596, which was carried on without intermission for the space of forty years, and ended in the year 1638 with the total extermination of the Christians, and the banishment of the Portuguese from the country. The Japanese government, considering the unwarrantable conduct of these settlers, to be inseparable from their principles as Christians, have persevered in the enforcement of the most efficacious measures to prevent their re-introduction into the country; and in order to detect any concealed adherents to these proscribed sentiments, all persons are required to prove their freedom from such heresy, by publicly trampling, at the festival of the new year, upon the images of the Catholic saints.

Having given a general account of the two prevalent religious sects in Japan, we shall proceed to notice more particularly some of their religious tenets and practices.

If the Japanese have any idea of rewards and punishments in a future state, they perfectly extinguish it, both by their conduct and their system. Their most refined conceptions amount to no more than this, that the soul, after its separation from the body, wings her way towards Takamans-ferra, that is, high and sub-celestial fields, which lie, in their opinion, beneath the three-and-thirtieth heaven. The souls of the virtuous are admitted in a moment into those realms of bliss; but those of the vicious are refused admittance, and obliged to wander about in a disconsolate manner for a long time, to make atonement for their sins. As to their notion of hell, Kæmpfer assures us, that the Sintoists acknowledge no other than the torment of wandering like vagabonds around those sub-celestial fields, nor any other devil, than the detestable Fox, whom they conjure in the most solemn manner; for a great number of the Japanese look upon that animal as the receptacle of the souls of the wicked in a future state. The odious name, which their priests give to that creature, is much the same with our denomination of the foul fiend.

We shall next proceed to the morals of the Sintoists. They who are of this sect maintain, that in order to draw down the benediction of the gods upon their souls in the life to come, but more particularly in this, they must take indefatigable pains to keep their souls unspotted and undefiled, religiously abstain from every thing that may possibly pollute them, or their bodies, strictly observe all festivals and other days set apart for the service and worship of the gods, and make voluntary pilgrimages to the province of

Isie. This part of their empire is looked upon by their devotees as their Holy Land, because *Isanagi-Mikotto*, and his wife *Isanami*, who are the Adam and Eve of these islanders, sojourned there during the whole of their lives. *Tensio-dai-sin*, who was the first of the race of their terrestrial gods, and the eldest son of *Isanagi*, sojourned likewise in this very province. They who carry their devotion to the highest pitch, add penance and humiliation to these four precepts of Sintoism.

Purity of soul. Purity of soul, according to these Sintoists, consists in a strict obedience to the dictates of nature and the voice of reason; in an utter abhorrence of what those dictates respectively prohibit; in the exact observance of the laws of the realm; and the commands of their prince; and in the abstinence from every action, that is inconsistent with either the one or the other. But Sintoism, in a more peculiar manner, recommends to its admirers an external purity, to which its devotees are inviolably attached, as devotees, indeed, in all religions generally are. This external purity consists in not defiling themselves with blood, in abstaining from all manner of flesh, and taking particular care not to touch the dead.

Observance of Festivals. The observance of solemn festivals, and of those days which are set apart for the service of the gods, is the third article of Sintoism. At those times the devotees are obliged to visit their pagods, unless they happen to be in a state of impurity, or their minds be ruffled and discomposed by any inordinate passions. But before they presume to appear in the presence of their gods, even before they depart from their houses, in order to go to the temple, they first purify and wash themselves, then dress with propriety and neatness; and, above all, take particular care to put on their *Kamisino*, which is a ceremonial habit, and undoubtedly looked upon as a fundamental article of their religious worship. They go to the temple with an air of gravity and sedateness; and as soon as they enter the outward court, there is a large conservatory of water, in which they are obliged to wash their hands before they proceed any further. After this ablution, they approach the temple with downcast eyes, and an air of contrition; then they present themselves before a window, in which stands a large looking-glass, which is an emblem of the Deity, who sees all things past, present, and to come, at one view, as in a glass. He knows all the secrets, all the thoughts of his adorers. This is the illustration which the Japanese give of this looking-glass. The Sintoists fall upon



Bramins Dragging Chains. p. 557.



Bramin hanging by his feet above a fire which he supplies with wood. p. 557.

their knees, and bow down their heads before this window; and after having remained a few moments in that humble posture, they lift up their heads, and as they say their prayers, turn their eyes with considerable humility towards the sacred mirror. After this, they put some pieces of silver through a lattice into the temple, or the charity-box, which stands close by the latter. 'This is an oblation to the gods, or rather an alms to their priest. After they have made this free-will offering, they ring a bell three times, as a testimony of their love and affection for the gods, who, as they imagine, take great delight in such agreeable sounds.

The Sintoists look on pilgrimage as the fourth important article of their religion. Kæmpfer takes notice of three kinds of it, amongst which, that made to Isie, or Tsie, is, properly speaking, the only one peculiar to Sintoism. Pilgrimage
to Isie or Tsie. That of Isie, is called *Sanga*, which signifies the devotion of ascending or going up to the temple. The temple of Isie bears the name of *Dai-singu*; that is to say, *the temple of the great God*. The fabric is composed of wood, and covered with straw. They take peculiar care to preserve it in its native simplicity, in order to commemorate the abject state and condition of their ancestors, more particularly those who laid the first foundation of their empire. There is nothing remarkable in this temple, excepting a large brazen looking-glass curiously polished, and several pieces of white paper, cut after the Chinese fashion, which hang upon the walls. This white paper is a symbol of that poverty of spirit, which the Deity requires of all those who pay their adorations to him, as also of the sanctity of the place. The temple is surrounded with a hundred little chapels, erected in honour of some of the inferior deities; these are only small edifices, in the form of temples; for they are so low that a man can scarcely stand upright in any of them; every chapel, however, has its peculiar priest. Near to this temple of *Dai-singu*, and the chapels which surround it, is established a religious order, the members of which assume the title and quality of the ministers and messengers of the gods, whose proper province it is to accommodate with convenient lodgings all the pilgrims who resort to that sacred place.

The true Sintoists are obliged once a year, or at least once in their lives, to perform the *Sanga*. The priests, at such terms, present every devout pilgrim with an *Ofaray*, which is a kind of certificate, or an absolution, entitling him to appear before the gods. Those who through age, weakness, or their

necessary avocations, cannot personally perform the Sanga, must at least be provided with one of these Ofarays of Isie.

The Sanga may be performed by deputation, and the grandees of Japan, and the tributary kings of the monarchy, perform it all by proxy. The emperor discharges himself of this duty, by sending ambassadors annually to the pagod of Isie. As to those, who undertake this pilgrimage themselves, if their circumstances be but indifferent, they go on foot, and the poorer sort beg the whole of the way for their daily subsistence. The majority of them carry a staff in their hand, and wear at their girdles a small bucket, which serves them not only to drink out of, but to store up the charitable presents, which are from time to time bestowed upon them. They wear likewise hats made of reeds, the brims of which being very broad, serves them to write their names upon, and the particular places of their nativity, or usual residence, that in case of death, or any other unforeseen misfortune, they may be known and challenged by their friends and relations. The devotees, on their return from this pilgrimage, wear over their common dress a little white vestment, without sleeves, on which their names are embroidered both before and behind.

As soon as these pilgrims set out for the Sanga, their friends, who stay at home, hang up a cord at their doors, and twist white paper all round about it, the intent of which is to keep those people from the house who are actually in *Ima*, that is, in the highest degree of pollution. Should any person in this *Ima* unhappily enter the house, he would thereby expose the poor pilgrim to a thousand dreadful calamities and perplexing dreams. Signals of the same nature are placed at the entrance of several of their pagods; such prudent precautions, however, are not sufficient of themselves to crown the pilgrim's devotion with success; for he is required, during his whole journey, to live as free as possible from all manner of impurity.

As soon as the pilgrim arrives at Isie, he makes a visit directly to the priest, to whom he is either recommended, or of whom he has himself made choice for his ghostly father, and with whom he lodges all the time he resides at Isie; and if he have not money of his own sufficient to repay him for his trouble, he pays him out of the charitable collections he makes at the place. The most zealous devotees begin their pious course with visiting the two temples near that of Tongu, or Ten-sio-dai-sin, and take the little chapels which surround them in their way. After this visitation they repair to a cave, which they call the country, or region of the heavens, because Ten-sio-dai-sin, having also retired into it, deprived the sun

and the stars of all their radiant lustre, and spread darkness over the face of the whole earth, to demonstrate that he alone was the Supreme Being, and the source of light. Not far from this cave, a chapel is situate, in which is to be seen a *Camî*, mounted on the back of a cow. The term *Camî* signifies a representation, or rather an emblem of the sun. The pilgrim performs his devotions in this chapel, after he has said his prayers in the cave of Ten-sio-dai-sin. His devotions conclude with his charitable contributions to the priests of these sacred places. After this he is conducted to the temple of Ten-sio-dai-sin, to whom the pilgrim opens all the secrets of his heart. Although his preceding acts are indeed very meritorious, yet they are but the introduction to the true devotion, which is due to Ten-sio-dai-sin, who seems to be the image of the Supreme Being, but disfigured by the fictions, which the priests have extracted from their legends. At last, when the devotee is ready to return, the priest makes him a present of an Ofaray, which has been already cursorily mentioned. This Ofaray is a little wooden box, not perfectly square, being somewhat longer than it is broad. This box is full of little sticks, amongst which some of them are wrapped up in white paper, a symbol, as we have before observed, of the purity of the heart. On one side of the box, the words, *Dai-Singu*, are written in large characters; and on the other, the name of the officiating priest, with the additional title or epithet of *Taiju*, that is, the *Messenger of the Gods*. The pilgrim having received this little treasure, with all the testimonies of the profoundest veneration and respect, hangs it generally on the fore flap of his hat, so that the Ofaray falls just before his forehead: on the hind flap he fastens another little box, or a little straw, as it were, by way of balance. The priests who give, and the devotees who receive this Ofaray, ascribe several extraordinary virtues to it, but with quite different views. All its supernatural qualities, indeed, are lost within the compass of a year; but, however, it is still preserved in high esteem, and fixed by some upon a tablet in their best parlour, and by others over the street-door, under a pent-house made on purpose. The Ofarays of the dead, and of those who are accidentally found in the streets or highways, are always concealed within the trunk of some hollow tree. The priests carry on an advantageous traffic with these Ofarays, especially on New-Year's Day, that being one of their most solemn festivals, at which time they understand well how to make their market to advantage, and to sooth the good humour, in which the common people generally are, at that remarkable season.

According to the advocates of the religion of Budsdo its founder, Budhu, or as Kæmpfer calls him, Siaka, was the son of one of the kings of Ceylon. When Siaka or Budhu. he was but nineteen years of age, he not only abandoned all the pomps and vanities of the world, but also his wife and only son, to become the disciple of a celebrated anchoret. Under this great master he made a very considerable progress in the state of contemplation; and the more effectually to wean his thoughts from all external objects, he habituated himself to sit in such a posture, as, according to the disciples of Siaka, engages the mind so intently, that a man thereby descends, as it were, into himself, and is wholly wrapped up in his own ideas. Siaka's posture was as follows: he sat with his legs across directly under him, and his hands laid one over another, in such a manner that the tip of his thumbs met close together. It was in this situation, that the divine truths were revealed to this enthusiast; that he penetrated into the most hidden mysteries of religion, and discovered the existence both of heaven and of hell; that he entertained an adequate idea of the state of souls after their separation from the bodies which they animated, and all their various transmigrations; that he was fully apprised of their rewards and punishments in another life; together with the omnipotence of the gods, and their divine providence, &c. On this revelation he grounded his system, and in process of time confirmed his disciples in the steadfast belief of it.

The doctrine of Siaka is that the souls of men and beasts are equally immortal, and of one and the same substance; all the difference consisting in the bodies, which Doctrines of Siaka. they respectively animate. As soon as the soul is separated from the body, it enters immediately into a state of happiness or misery, there to be rewarded or punished according to its deportment whilst united to the body. This state of bliss is called by a name which signifies, the seat of everlasting happiness; and although there be different degrees of pleasure in this paradise, and all are rewarded in proportion only to their respective merits; yet every inhabitant is so fully contented, that he esteems himself more happy than his neighbour, and his utmost ambition extends no farther than to enjoy to all eternity that share of happiness which he already possesses. Amidas is the sovereign lord, and absolute ruler of this paradise; he is the protector of all human souls, the father and god of all those who are made partakers of the delights of this paradise: he, in short, is the mediator

and saviour of mankind. It is through his intercession that souls obtain a remission of their sins, and are accounted worthy of eternal life. To live uprightly, and to observe strictly all the commandments of Siaka, are the two fundamental points which are capable of rendering them acceptable in the sight of Amidas.

As there are degrees of pleasure in paradise, so there are degrees likewise of pain in hell. *Jemma* is the judge of the wicked, and the grim monarch of this place of ^{Heaven and} torments. He beholds in a large looking-glass ^{Hell.} all the most secret transactions of mankind; he is, nevertheless, almost inexorable; but if the priests make intercession to Amidas for the sinner, and the relations of the deceased contribute by their liberal oblations towards the efficacy of the prayers of the priests, Amidas solicits this stern judge in such prevailing terms, that he not only mitigates the pains of the transgressor, but frequently discharges him, and sends him into the world again, before the term allotted for his chastisement be fully expired.

After the souls of men have made an atonement for their crimes in hell, by undergoing those torments which *Jemma* thinks fit to inflict upon them, they return into this world, and animate the bodies of such unclean beasts, as are most suitable to the vicious inclinations, that led them astray in their former state. As for instance, one takes up her residence in a toad, another in a serpent, &c. From these impure animals they transmigrate into others not so odious and contemptible; and so insensibly return in process of time to human bodies; in which, if they behave after the same profligate manner as they did before, they expose themselves after death to new and inexpressible torments.

After the death of Siaka, two of his favourite disciples made a collection of his maxims, and all his manuscripts, which were written with his own hands on the leaves ^{Sacred Book.} of a certain tree. The whole was contained in one volume, which the Japanese, by way of eminence, call *Kio*, that is, *The Book*. They call it likewise *Toke-kio*, that is, *The Book of Fine Flowers*. The two compilers of Siaka's manuscripts were honoured with deification. They are generally placed in the temples of their master; one on his right hand, and the other on his left.

The gods of Japan are exceedingly numerous, and their temples amount to many thousands. Within these temples there are generally no idols, but their squares and highways are always honoured with the ^{Gods.}

presence of some idol, which is erected there either with a view to kindle the flames of devotion in the souls of travellers, or with an intent only to support and protect the place. Idols are erected likewise near their bridges, and surround their temples, chapels, and convents. The people purchase either the pictures or images of these idols. The former are in general drawn on a sheet, or half a sheet of paper. They are pasted like bills or advertisements, upon the gates of their cities, and other public buildings, or on posts at the corner of their bridges and streets. The people, however, are not obliged, as they pass by, to prostrate themselves, nor to bow the knee before them. They have generally likewise an image of their domestic and tutelar gods before the doors of their houses. *Giwon* is the particular idol, which is most commonly represented by these images. They call him likewise *God-su-ten-oo*, the literal signification of which is, *The Prince of the Heavens with the head of an ox*. The Japanese ascribe to him the power of protecting them from all manner of distempers; particularly the small-pox, and from other casualties incidental to mankind. Others, still more superstitious, or rather more whimsical and extravagant, imagine, that they shall always be healthy and happy, provided the doors of their apartments be decorated with the monstrous figure of a savage of Jesso, who is hairy all over, and armed with a cutlass, which he holds in both hands, and with which, according to their notion, he denies admittance to all casualties and distempers whatsoever. Sometimes the door is secured by the monstrous head of some devil, or the tremendous figure of a dragon. Sometimes they content themselves with adorning the door, in the manner of a festoon, with the boughs of some particular trees, or with the plant called liver-wort. In short, they frequently place their ofarays over the doors of their apartments; and it is highly probable, that throughout the whole a great conformity exists between the amulets of the ancients, and the talismans of the Arabians.

Amidas, whom travellers sometimes call Omyto, is the god and guardian of souls, who preserves them, and saves them from those punishments which by their sins and iniquities they have deserved. He is represented upon an altar, and mounted on a horse with seven heads, which are hieroglyphics of seven thousand ages, each head representing one thousand. Amidas is represented with a dog's head, instead of a human face; he holds in his hands a gold ring, or circle, which he bites. This may be said to bear a very near affinity to the Egyptian circle, which was looked upon as

the emblem of time. At least it demonstrates, that this god is a hieroglyphic of the revolution of ages, or rather of eternity itself. Amidas is generally represented as dressed in a very rich robe, adorned with pearls and precious stones; and as he is considered the protector of their souls, and their saviour, is revered after a very singular manner, by some particular devotees, who voluntarily sacrifice their lives in honour to this idol, and drown themselves in his presence. This ceremony consists principally in embarking in a pretty little boat, which is in general gilt, and adorned with several silken streamers; the devotee having previously tied a considerable number of stones to his neck, waist, and legs. The destined victim, however, first takes a dance, and frisks about to the sound of gongums, and other instrumental music; after which he throws himself headlong into the river. On this solemn occasion, he is attended by a numerous train of his friends and relations, and several Bonzes. This voluntary catastrophe is preceded by an intimate converse for two days between him and his god.

That Amidas is in their opinion the Supreme Being, is undeniably evident from the description which his disciples give of him; for, they say, he is an invisible, incorporeal, and immutable substance, distinct from all the elements; that he existed before Nature, and is the fountain and foundation of all good, without beginning or end; in short, that he created the universe, and is infinite and immense. They likewise add, that he governs the universe without the least trouble or care; by which they must either mean an absolute order, which the Supreme Being has established from the beginning, by virtue of which all things are disposed in such a manner that nature indispensably obeys it; or simply, that the providence of God governs every thing he has created, according to his own good will and pleasure, without the least trouble. However that may be, if they acknowledge that Amidas governs the universe, they own by consequence, his providence. Besides, the temples and altars which are erected to his honour throughout the whole empire of Japan, a great number of convents are consecrated to him, in which several monks and nuns reside, who are for ever destined to a single state on pain of death.

Canon, called by some travellers, the son of Amidas, presides over the waters, and the fish. He is the creator of the sun and the moon. This idol, according to the Canon. representation of him, has four arms, like his father, is swallowed up by a fish, as far as his middle, and is crowned with flowers. He has a sceptre in one hand, a flower

in another, and a ring in the third; the fourth is closed, and the arm extended. Opposite him is the figure of an humble devotee, one half of whose body lies concealed within a shell. Four other figures are placed at a little distance on an altar, each of them with their hands closed like humble supplicants, from which, as from so many fountains, flow streams of water.

Toranga is another idol of the Japanese. This hero of Japan was formerly a huntsman. He took possession of the

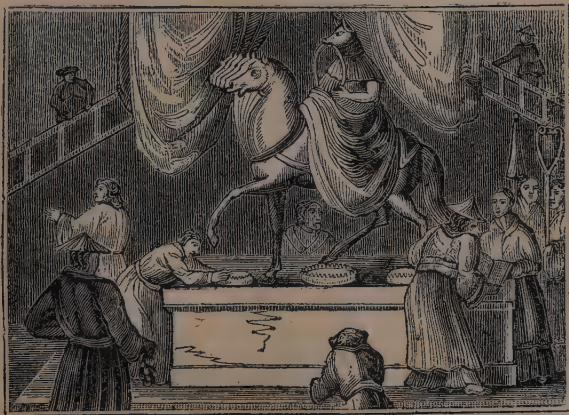
Toranga. empire soon after its first establishment, and by his extraordinary merit, in process of time, was revered as one of their Camis, and consequently was ranged among the gods. He delivered Japan from a tyrant, who, with eight kings of the country, his confederates and allies, laid the empire waste; upon which account it was thought proper to represent him with eight arms, and in each hand some weapon of defence. Toranga defeated them with a hatchet only, and, during the combat, trod under foot a monstrous and formidable serpent, which in all probability is looked upon as a hieroglyphic at Japan, as well as it is with us. His Mia, which is situated in the province or kingdom of Vacata, is remarkable for the four oxen which are gilt all over, and fixed, by way of decoration, on the four corners of the roof, which projects on all sides, according to the custom observed in the erection of all their Mias. The wall of this Mia is, moreover, embellished with the figures of several ancient Camis, or demi-gods of Japan, and the whole structure is raised after the same model with the rest. A number of vagrants and beggars assemble before the doors of this temple; and, as they sing the praises of their heroes, beg the charity and benevolence of the public.

Apes and monkeys are said to be worshipped and to have their pagods in Japan. Their veneration for dogs is of modern date. The emperor who sat on the throne,

Apes, monkeys, and dogs. when Kämpfer resided in Japan, was so extravagantly fond of them, that since his reign, a greater number of them have been kept in that kingdom, than in any other nation in the whole world. Every street is obliged to maintain a fixed and determined number of them. They are quartered upon the inhabitants, and, in case of sickness, they are obliged to nurse and attend them. When they die, they are obliged to inter them in a decent manner, in the mountains and hills peculiarly appropriated for the interment of the people. It is looked upon as a capital crime not only to kill them, but even to insult and treat them ill; and no one but the legal proprietor is allowed so much as to correct any



Pagad of Dacboth. p. 525.



Amidas, the principal Deity of the Japanese. p. 522.



of them. All this reverence and respect are owing to a celestial constellation, which the Japanese call the dog, under the influence of which the aforesaid Emperor of Japan was born.

Jemma-o, the judge, or, more properly speaking, the grim tyrant of the infernal regions, has a pagod consecrated to him some small distance from Miaco, situate in a Jemma-o. very delightful grotto; in which is also situate a convent, to which the nobility, whose circumstances are but narrow, and their families large, send their younger children, whom they cannot with any convenience support in a manner suitable to their character and grandeur. In the same place stands likewise a pagod of that infernal judge, who is styled the king of the devils. Two large devils are placed on each side of him, and as for himself, his figure is as monstrous and formidable as is suitable to his function, and his gloomy habitation. One of these devils acts as his secretary, and registers in a book, kept for that particular purpose, all the offences and transgressions of mankind; the province of the other is to read them distinctly over, or rather to dictate what the secretary is to enter. The walls are embellished with frightful pictures of all the inexpressible tortures which the wicked undergo in the regions of hell. This pagod is prodigiously crowded by the people, who resort to it from all parts, with oblations and money in their hands, to redeem their souls from the torments of so formidable a judge.

Dai-both, or Dai-but, is one of the principal deities of the empire. The etymological signification of his name is, the Great God, or Great Deity. In all probability, therefore, he may be the same as Amidas, or Dai-both or Dai-but. the Supreme Being, considered under some of his particular attributes; or he may be Budhu, perhaps, from whom the Budsdoists derive their denomination. This idol is set up in a very remarkable pagod at Miaco. The following is the most authentic account of the celebrated temple consecrated to the idol Daiboth. On entering the temple itself, a kind of a gate is passed through, on each side of which are erected two monstrous figures, with several arms, full of arrows, swords, and other offensive weapons. These two monsters stand in a posture of defence, and seem prepared to combat each other. From this gate the way leads to a large quadrangle, with galleries on each side of it, which are supported by pillars of freestone. Having crossed this square, another gate presents itself, embellished with two large lions made of stone, which leads directly into the pagod, in the centre of which the idol Daiboth is seated, after the oriental fashion,

on an altar table, which has a slight elevation from the ground. This idol is of a monstrous height; his head touching the very roof of his temple.

Besides the foregoing, the Japanese have numerous other gods, which preside over their fortune, &c. *Daikoku*, to whom they are indebted for all the riches they enjoy. *Tossitoku*, who presides over the good or ill fortune of mankind. *Fottei*, who presides over all their diversions. *Sueva*, who is the god and patron of their huntsmen, &c.

It is one of the fundamental principles of Sintoism, to visit, as often as possible, the temples consecrated to the gods, and Festivals. the souls of those saints, who in their lives were conspicuous for their merit. This act of devotion, indeed, is always commendable; but must be neglected, on no account, at such times as are set apart for divine service.

The festivals of the Sintos are all fixed and immoveable; some are monthly, others annual. There are three in every month; that is, at the increase, full, and decrease of the moon. In regard to the first, it is a day rather devoted to conversation, and other innocent amusements amongst friends, than to the service of the gods. The last is set apart likewise for nearly the same purposes. But the fifteenth day of the month is, properly speaking, a solemn festival, and spent in acts of devotion. The Sintos have, moreover, five annual festivals, which are also immoveable; that is to say, New-year's day, the third day of the third month, the fifth of the fifth, the seventh of the seventh, and the ninth of the ninth month. The reason of this exceedingly curious choice of unequal numbers, is, that they fall upon unfortunate days, and that the usual rejoicings on such festivals are, in the opinion of the Sintos, acceptable to the gods, and avert those evils and misfortunes, which would otherwise infallibly fall out on those unlucky days. It is an established notion of the Sintoists, that the gods take delight in the various recreations, which constantly attend their festivals; and that the innocent amusements of those, who honour them by such public demonstrations of their joy, can never offend them.

Pilgrimages are performed by great numbers, who are generally dressed in white, and seldom march more than four

Pilgrimages. or five in a body; one of whom is, as it were, their commanding officer, and carries in his hand a staff, or kind of halberd, adorned with little bundles of white paper, fastened to one another, which may with the greatest propriety be called their fasces. Their discipline, or order of marching, is this. Two of the leaders of the van

move with a slow and solemn pace, and every now and then with a considerable degree of formality make a halt. These two conjointly carry a kind of hand barrow, on the top of which there is a bell, or something like one, of a light metal, or a large kettle, or, in short, some other instrument alluding to the history of their gods, adorned with the boughs of fir-trees, and slips of white paper, cut in various forms. The superior or commanding officer dances before the hand-barrow, and at the same time sings, in a very melancholy tone, some composition or another suitable to the present subject. Meanwhile another of these devout soldiers files off, and gets forward, in order to beg from door to door through the next town, or to collect upon the road the charitable contributions of those well-disposed persons who accidentally pass by him.

Another set of pilgrims oblige themselves to visit the three and thirty principal pagods, which are peculiarly consecrated to their god Quanwon or Canon. These devotees all sing, as they proceed from house to house, some psalm or hymn, in honour to their god, &c. They are dressed in white, and wear about their necks a list or catalogue of the several temples of Canon, which they are still to visit. This course of life, this method of travelling the kingdom over, in the name of some deity or other, is so commodious and agreeable, that thousands become pilgrims, in order to live free from the solitudes and anxieties of life.

There are others, who commence pilgrims with more credit and reputation than the rest, and voluntarily submit to such austerities, and acts of self-denial, as are looked upon by the majority of the people to be the external and visible marks of true holiness. They travel naked, even in frost and snow, with no other covering but a twist of straw girt round their loins. This penance is complied with, in order either to perform their solemn vows made in times of distress, or with the pleasing prospect of drawing down some singular blessing of the gods upon them; and they are such great strangers to the occupation of begging, that they will not accept of the least charitable contribution, even when offered to them.

There is another set of people who dedicate themselves entirely to Amidas, whose very title plainly shows the devotion to which alone they are inviolably attached; that is, to repeat, as often as possible, the Namanda, or prayers, which the Japanese likewise distinguish by the name of *Nambutz*. They are a sort of religious body, or confraternity; and both citizens and gentlemen enter themselves as members of their society; but the majority of them, indeed, consist of vulgar

people, who assemble in the streets, and places of the most public resort. There, they either sing or repeat the Namanda to the tinkling of a little bell, which they make use of to gather round about them a crowd of passengers, and especially of such credulous devotees, who are of opinion that prayers are always effectual, let the person who pronounces them be ever so impious or hypocritical. As these prayers, according to the exalted idea, which the Japanese entertain of them, are highly conducive to the consolation and relief of their friends and relations, who are doing penance in another world, every one contributes some charitable benefaction, to extenuate the torments of their deceased friends. The members of this society are very punctual in the relief of each other under any misfortunes whatsoever; and this mutual testimony of their love and friendship is the basis and foundation of their order. They bury the dead themselves, and contribute out of their own private stock, or the alms which they collect, towards the interment of those who are unable, through their necessitous circumstances, to bear the expense. When any devotee of wealth and reputation presents himself to be a member, they ask him in the first place if he be willing to contribute, as far as in him lies, towards the interment of any deceased brother. If he refuse to enter upon this engagement, he is peremptorily denied admittance.

The Japanese say their prayers upon a rosary or a chaplet. Each sect has one peculiar to itself; that belonging to the sect of Seodosin consists of two circles, one over the other. The first, or uppermost, consists of forty beads, and the lowest of thirty. The sects of Ikosia and Sensju have each their respective chaplets. The latter is made use of by the Chinese, as well as the Japanese, and is called in the language of the latter *Fiakmanben*. These are their most remarkable chaplets, by the assistance of which these islanders count their prayers, which are much longer than those of the Roman Catholics. They are obliged to repeat them a hundred and eight times over, because the Bonzes assure them, that there are as many different sins, which render a man polluted and unclean; and against each of their attacks, a faithful and true member of the Japanese church, ought always to be provided with a proper prayer for his spiritual defence. Every morning, as soon as ever they rise, they are obliged to make some ejaculatory prayer, lifting up the fingers of their right hand. The Japanese imagine, that by this devout precaution, they shall frustrate the wicked devices of the devil.

The Emperor of Japan was formerly the Dairi himself,



Laplanders offering sacrifices to Idols. p. 558.



Festival of the Japanese. p. 527.

who, though of race divine, is not honoured with the illustrious title of Mikotto, which is only ascribed to Their Dairi. those gods and demi-gods, who were his ancestors. However, his title of Ten-sin is very august and glorious, the signification of it being no less than the Son of Heaven. In their common discourse, indeed, he is only called the Dairi: his person is looked on as sacred; and he is never permitted to touch the ground with his sacred feet. It is derogatory to his dignity to walk; and for that reason, whenever he appears in public, his guards carry him upon their shoulders. He is never exposed to the inclemency of the air, nor the heat of the sun; and so sacred is his person, that no one must presume to touch his beard, hair, or nails, unless they take the favourable opportunity, whilst he is asleep, to rob him of those excrescences, which, if neglected, would appear slovenly and indecent. Formerly this prince was obliged to expose himself every morning to public view, for several hours together; at which time, he appeared seated on his throne, with his crown upon his head; his eyes, hands, and feet, were all kept fixed, and his whole body seemed as immoveable as a statue. On this grotesque posture, the tranquillity, in short, of the whole kingdom entirely depended. But this ceremony is now done away; he has at present no business upon his hands, but to consult his ease and his diversions. Every dish that is served up at his table, and every plate laid upon it, must be perfectly new. By the established rules of their ceremonial, every implement, of what nature or kind soever, that is once made use of at his table, must never be brought before him any more; they must be wholly destroyed and broken to pieces; for which reason his furniture is very cheap and very ordinary. Should they be preserved, the consequence, it seems, might prove fatal to other people: for the superstitious Japanese are of opinion, that if a layman should through inadvertency eat off a plate that had been served at the table of his Holiness, he would immediately be tormented with a sore mouth, and an inflammation in his throat. Upon the same principle, should a layman presume to put on any vestment whatever belonging to the Dairi, without express orders from the emperor, his body would infallibly be bloated like one that has been poisoned.

As soon as ever the throne of the Dairi becomes vacant, a successor is elected without the least regard either to age or sex; but proximity of blood is observed with the Election of utmost exactness, insomuch that sometimes an Dairi. infant is established on the throne, and sometimes, likewise, the widow, and relict of the deceased monarch.

In case there be several candidates for the throne, and the right of primogeniture appears dubious and difficult to be decided, then each reigns alternately so many years, in proportion to their respective titles to this impotent royalty; for it may properly be called so, for notwithstanding the religious adoration, or something nearly allied to it, which is paid to this prince, yet his dignity is without authority, and it must never be exerted without the approbation of the emperor. He is a pope, and infallible with respect to the people; but his infallibility ceases, whenever it is repugnant to the interests of the secular monarch. Sometimes the Dairi abdicates his crown to promote his children, and in that case, if he have a numerous issue, he has the pleasure to see some part of their reign before he dies.

The Dairi, in general, wears a black tunic, under a scarlet robe, with a large veil over it, made something like our crape, the fringes of which fall over his hands; and

Dress.

upon his head he has a cap, embellished with divers tufts or tassels. All his court distinguish themselves from the laity by their dress. Their various habits likewise denote their respective quality and functions. It would be tedious to expatiate on this variety of their attire, the most remarkable circumstance consisting principally in the fashion of their cap, which is the mark of their distinction. Some wear it with a crape band, either twisted or hanging loosely down; others with a piece of silk, which falls over their eyes. They likewise wear a scarf over their shoulders, which may properly be called their ceremonial. When they pay their respects, their conge must be made only so low, as that the bottom of the scarf may just sweep the ground; and for that reason, as there are degrees of quality amongst them, the scarf is either longer or shorter, in proportion thereto, and consequently their salutations are either more or less submissive.

When the Dairi was supreme head of the kingdom, he had no fixed place of residence; but at present, both he and his court are settled at Miaco. The emperor allows him

Authority of
the Dairi.

a very strong life-guard, under the specious pretence of paying him those honours which are due to his rank and dignity, and of securing his sacred person from any public or private insults. It was about the middle of the twelfth century, that the Dairi was dispossessed of his sovereignty. Before that time, the civil and ecclesiastical power was concentrated in one and the same monarch; and for a considerable time after this revolution, the secular prince

was so modest, as to be contented with the title of general or viceroy of the crown, and willing to submit some part of the civil authority to the supreme head of the church, till the reign of Taiko, who, in the year 1585, made himself absolute monarch, and left the other the empty title only of a prince, without any authority to support his power.

It is the Dairi's province to canonize their saints, by which must be understood the deification or exaltation of their illustrious nobility, to the rank of heroes and demi-gods after their decease. The Dairi himself, who is vice-god upon earth, is by his dignity entitled to canonization. He imagines himself, even in his present state of humanity, so pure and holy, that the *Geges* (for so they call the laymen) are unworthy to appear in his presence. It is a received opinion amongst them, that all the gods condescend to pay him a formal visit once a year, that is, in their tenth month; for which reason it is called *the month without a God*; and as they are all assembled at the court of their earthly vicegerent, nobody pays them any divine adoration during their residence here below.

The gods, who visit the Dairi, are obliged to watch round his sacred person night and day, during the whole visitation-month. Father Floes assures us, that three hundred and sixty-six idols lodge in the Dairi's palace, and that a select number stand guard around his bed alternately every night. It is added, that if he happen to have a restless night, the idol upon duty is immediately bastinadoed, and banished the court for a hundred days. In short, the Dairi is held in such high veneration in Japan, that the water in which that prince washes his feet, is looked upon as very sacred. It is stored up with the utmost precaution, and no one must presume to make use of it for any profane purposes whatsoever.

The Budsdoists have a very large number of pagods, commodiously and agreeably situated, and in them are several altars, images, and statues, as tall as men, all Pagods. gilt; but the whole is rather neat than magnificent. As the religion of Budsdo is divided into several branches, each division has its peculiar mode of worship, with proper pagods and priests; and both are dependent on one superior church; in which particular, there is but a trivial difference between them and us. Near these pagods are situated the convents, which are plentifully stored with monks, whose profession or trade it is to make atonement for the sins both of the living and the dead. There are some monks amongst these sects who are allowed to marry, and even to educate their male issue in the convent where they are born.

There are various orders of hermits, nuns, &c. in Japan. Our limits will permit us to notice such only as are most distinguished. Among the former are the Jammabos, or soldiers of the mountains. By their

Hermits. institution they are taught to fight manfully, on all occasions, in defence of their gods, and the established religion. The solemn vow which they make, is to renounce all temporal advantages for the prospect of eternal happiness, and it is with this godly view that they undergo the severest mortifications, impose upon themselves the most arduous undertakings, ascend the most craggy mountains, and wash themselves frequently in the coldest water in the depth of the severest winter. The more affluent of these Jammabos have their respective habitations; but the poorer sort rove about from place to place, and beg for their daily sustenance.

The monks of these orders dress like laymen; but their usual dress is embellished with some decorations that are rather uncommon. They wear a sabre in their girdles, a little staff in their hands, with a brass head, and four rings of the same metal; and in order to excite the charity and compassion of those who pass by them, they also carry a shell, which in fashion and sound resembles a horn. They frequently wave their staves as they are muttering some particular expressions in their prayers.

They wear about their necks a scarf, or rather a silk band, adorned with fringes, which is longer or shorter, according to their respective qualifications. The form and beauty of their fringes likewise distinguish their quality, and their cap is made according to a very singular fashion. They carry a wallet upon their backs, with a book in it, a little money, and a coat. They wear sandals on their feet, composed either of straw, or the stalks of the flower lotos. This is not, however, the only plant that is looked upon as sacred; for the Japanese entertain the same idea of the fir and the bamboo. They imagine, that these plants have a supernatural influence over their future fortunes. The bamboo is deposited in the armories of the emperor of Japan, and his subjects look upon that and fire, as emblems of his sacred majesty.

These hermits, who originally professed Sintoism in its utmost beauty and extent, have entirely degenerated from their first institution. Their laws were severe, and their establishment simple; but they have gradually forsaken and neglected the austerity of the former, and the plainness of the latter. They have blended the worship of strange gods with their Sintoism, and all the superstitions and ceremonies of the Indies are

added to their theology. By their laws they are obliged to climb up to the summit of the most craggy mountains; this penance, however, is never performed at present, but with apparent indifference and inattention. As their habitations are generally adjacent to some Mia, they, in a very earnest and noisy manner, beg the charity and benevolence of all those who pass by, in the name of the illustrious Cami, to whose service their temple is peculiarly devoted; at the same time, giving them a long and tedious detail of his life, character, and miracles, attended with a preposterous agitation of their staves, on which a large number of copper rings are fastened; in the inharmonious sound of a kind of sea-horn, of which they make use instead of a trumpet. Their children likewise join in the chorus, and are as noisy and importunate as their parents.

The *Bikunis* is an order of mendicant nuns in Japan, who take on themselves the habit either from the compulsion of their parents, or to gratify their own vicious inclinations. These female devotees are in general perfect beauties. The poorer classes, having several daughters, endeavour to promote those who are young and handsome to this mendicant profession; and some of them solicit it for themselves, from a secret persuasion that the strongest motive to love and compassion is beauty. The Jammabos make no scruple of selecting their wives out of this society of Bikunis, or entering their daughters as religious members among them. This order of young ladies, may with propriety be styled the nuns of Venus, for there are several of them, who after they have been so complaisant to the public, as to devote their charms for some time to its service, dedicate the remainder of their youth and beauty to this sociable retreat; in short, they have no one mark of sanctity about them, but their tonsure; being obliged by the rules of their order to be shaved. Nuns.

The following is a description of the nuptial ceremony: the bridegroom and the bride go out of town, by two different ways, with their respective retinues, and meet by appointment at the foot of a certain hill. In the retinue of the former, independently of his friends and relations, are many carriages loaded with provisions. Having arrived at the hill, to the summit of which they ascend by a flight of stairs made on purpose, they there enter a tent, and seat themselves, one on the one side, and the other on the other, like plenipotentiaries assembled at the congress of peace. The parents of both parties place themselves behind the bride, Nuptial ceremonies.

and a band of music range themselves behind the bridegroom, but all without the precincts of the tent. Both their retinues stay below at the foot of the hill. The bridegroom and the bride, each with a flambeau, then present themselves under the tent, before the God of Marriage, who is placed upon an altar there, having the head of a dog, which is a lively emblem of the mutual fidelity requisite in a state of wedlock. The string in his hands is another symbol of the force and obligation of its bands. Near the god, and between the two parties, stands a bonze, whose office is to perform the marriage ceremony. There are several lighted lamps at a small distance from the tent, at one of which the bride lights the flambeau which she holds in her hand, pronouncing at the same time a form of words, which are dictated to her by the bonze; after this the bridegroom lights his taper or flambeau, by that of his intended bride. This part of the ceremony is accompanied with loud acclamations of joy, and the congratulations of all the friends and relations then present of the newly-married couple. At the same time the bonze dismisses them with his benediction, and their retinue make a large bonfire at the foot of the hill, in which are thrown all the toys and play-things with which the young bride amused herself in her virgin state. Others produce a distaff and some flax before her, to intimate, that from thenceforward she must apply herself to the prudent management of her family affairs. The ceremony concludes with the solemn sacrifice of two oxen to the God of Marriage. After this the newly-married couple return with their retinues, and the bride is conducted to her husband's house, where she finds every room in the most exact order, and embellished in the gayest manner. The pavement and the threshold are strewed with flowers and greens, whilst flags and streamers on the housetops seem to promise nothing but one continued series of delight, which may continue unfeigned, in all probability, the time of the nuptials, which are celebrated eight days successively.

The Japanese burn their dead. If the deceased be a person of distinction, all his friends and relations, dressed in mourning, repair to the place appointed for burning the corpse, about an hour before the funeral procession. They are preceded by several companies of bonzes. The deceased, seated in a coffin, is carried by four men; his head is somewhat inclined forwards, and his hands closed, as if in a praying posture. The spot where the body is burned is surrounded with four walls, covered with white cloth, the four gates only excepted, through which they

Funeral solemnities.

are to enter. These gates front the four cardinal points of the compass. They dig a deep grave in the middle, which is filled with wood, and on each side a table is placed, covered with all manner of provisions. On one of them stands a little chafing dish, like a censer, full of live coals and sweet wood. As soon as the corpse is brought to the brink of the grave, they fasten a long cord to the coffin, which is made like a little bed for the deceased to lie on. After they have carried the little bed in form thrice round the grave, they lay it on the funeral pile, whilst the bonzes and relations of the deceased call incessantly on the name of his tutelary idol. After this, the superior bonze, that is, he who marched at the head of the procession, walks three times round the corpse with his lighted taper, waving it three times over his head, and pronouncing some mystic words, to the meaning of which the assistants themselves are perfect strangers. The last action denotes that the soul exists from all eternity, and will never cease to be; but this emblem seems forced and very obscure. After this he throws away his taper, and two of the nearest relations to the deceased taking it up, wave it thrice over the corpse, and then toss it into the grave. But, according to Crasset, the bonze gives it to the youngest son of the deceased, who, after there has been a considerable quantity of oils, perfumes, and aromatic drugs poured into the grave, throws his torch into it. During the time that the body is consuming in the flames, the children, or nearest relations of the deceased, advance towards the censer that stands upon the table, put perfumes into it, and then worship and adore it. This ceremony being concluded, the friends and relations of the deceased withdraw, leaving none but the populace and the poor behind them, who either eat or carry home the entertainment provided for the deceased.

SEC. III.—RELIGIOUS TENETS, CEREMONIES, AND CUSTOMS OF THE THIBETIANS AND TARTARS.

THE name of the Grand Lama is given to the sovereign pontiff, or high-priest, of the Thibetian Tartars, who reside at Patoli, a vast palace on a mountain near the banks of Barampooter, about seven miles from Grand Lamā. Lahassa. The foot of this mountain is inhabited by twenty thousand lamas, or priests, who have their separate apartments around the mountain; and, according to their respective qualities, are placed nearer, or at a greater distance from, the sovereign pontiff. He is not only worship

ped by the Thibetians, but also is the great object of adoration for the various tribes of heathen Tartars who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Wolga to Correea, on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth, but the more remote Tartars are said to absolutely regard him as the Deity himself, and call him *God, the everlasting Father of Heaven*. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts to worship, and make rich offerings at his shrine. Even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity; and he actually entertains, at a great expense in the palace of Pekin, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The Grand Lama, it has been said, is never to be seen but in a secret place of his palace, amidst a great number of lamps, sitting cross-legged on a cushion, and decked in every part with gold and precious stones; where at a distance the people prostrate themselves before him, it not being lawful for any so much as to kiss his feet. He returns not the least sign of respect, nor ever speaks, even to the greatest princes; but only lays his hand upon their heads, and they are fully persuaded they receive from thence a full forgiveness of all their sins.

The Sunniasses, or Indian pilgrims, often visit Thibet as a holy place; and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Besides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is possessed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extensive. The inferior Lamas, who form the most numerous, as well as the most powerful body in the state, have the priesthood entirely in their hands; and, besides, fill up many monastic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The whole country, like Italy, abounds with priests; and they entirely subsist on the great number of rich presents which are sent them from the utmost extent of Tartary, from the empire of the great Mogul, and from almost all parts of the Indies.

The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Thibetians is, that, when the Grand Lama seems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his soul, in fact, only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another, younger or better: and it is discovered again in the body of some child by certain tokens, known only to the Lamas or Priests, in which order he always appears.

Almost all the nations of the east, except the Mohammed-

dans, believe the *metempsychosis* as the most important article of their faith; especially the inhabitants of Thibet and Ava, the Peguans, Siamese, the greatest part of the Chinese and Japanese, and the Monguls and Kalmucks, who changed the religion of Schamanism for the worship of the Grand Lama. According to the doctrine of this metempsychosis, the soul is always in action, and never at rest: for no sooner does she leave her old habitation, than she enters a new one. The Dalay being a divine person, can find no better lodging than the body of his successor; or the *Fo*, residing in the Dalay Lama, which passes to his successor; and this being a god, to whom all things are known, the Dalay Lama is therefore acquainted with every thing which happened during his residence in his former body.

This religion is said to have been of three thousand years standing; and neither time, nor the influence of men, has had the power of shaking the authority of the Grand Lama. This theocracy extends as fully to temporal as to spiritual concerns.

Though in the grand sovereignty of the Lamas, the temporal power has been occasionally separated from the spiritual by slight revolutions, they have always been united again after a time; so that in Thibet the whole constitution rests on the imperial pontificate in a manner elsewhere unknown. For as the Thibetians suppose the Grand Lama is animated by the god Shaka, or *Fo*, who at the decease of one Lama transmigrates into the next, and consecrates him an image of the divinity, the descending chain of Lamas is continued down from him in fixed degrees of sanctity: so that a more firmly established sacerdotal government, in doctrine, customs, and institutions, that actually reigns over this country, cannot be conceived. The supreme manager of temporal affairs is no more than the viceroy of the sovereign priest, who, conformable to the dictates of his religion, dwells in divine tranquillity in a building that is both temple and palace. If some of his votaries in modern times have dispensed with the adoration of his person, still certain real modifications of the Shaka religion is the only faith they profess, the only religion they follow. The state of sanctity which that religion inculcates, consists in monastic confidence, absence of thought, and the perfect repose of nonentity.

To give as clear an account as possible of this religion, little more is required than to extract the ample account given of it in a description of Thibet, published in Green's Collection of Voyages, and re-published in Pinkerton.

Friar Horace says, that in the main the religion of Thibet is the counterpart of the Romish. They believe in one God,

and a trinity, but full of errors; a paradise, hell, and purgatory, but full of errors also. They make suffrages, alms, prayers, and sacrifices for the dead; have a vast number of convents filled with monks and friars, amounting to thirty thousand; who, besides the three vows of poverty, obedience, and chastity, make several others. They have their confessors, who are chosen by their superiors, and receive their licenses from their Lama, as a bishop, without which they cannot hear confessions, or impose penances. They have the same form of hierarchy as in the Romish Church; for they have their inferior Lamas, chosen by the Grand Lama, who act as bishops in their respective diocesses, having under them simple Lamas, who are the religious. To these may be added, the use of holy water, crosses, beads, and other matters.

The chief object of worship in this country, is the same which in China is called Fo, but by the Lamas in Thibet, La. This prince, who was born one thousand and twenty-six years before Christ, and reigned in a part of India, called Chantyen-cho, or as others say, Si-tyen, gave himself out to be God, assuming human flesh; and when he died, it was pretended, that he only withdrew for a while, and would appear again in a determinate time; as he actually did, if the testimony of his devout disciples, the writings of the primitive fathers amongst them, and, in short, the tradition and authority of the whole church, from age to age, down to the present, are at all to be regarded in proof. And this imposture has been practised since as often as there has been occasion for it: So that the god La, still lives, and is corporally present in the person of the Dalay Lama. In which respect, the church of Thibet has infinitely the advantage of the Romish, in as much as the visible head of it is considered to be God himself, not his vicar, or deputy; and the incarnate deity, who is the object of divine worship, appears alive in human shape to receive the people's adorations: not in the form of a senseless bit of bread, or playing at bo-peep in a diminutive wafer, which would be too gross a cheat to impose on the understandings of the Thibetians, however ignorant and superstitious the missionaries, to their own shame, represent them.

The Great Lama, who, as we said before, is La, or Fo incarnate, is, according to Grueber, called in the country,

Lama Konju, or the Eternal Father. He is also styled Dalay Lama. The same author says,

in another letter, that Great Lama signifies the Great High Priest, and Lama of Lamas; as he is also styled, the High Priest of High Priests. These last titles regard only his office, or degree, in his ecclesiastical or religious capacity; but with respect to his divine nature, or quality, which entitles him to be adored as God, they term him likewise the heavenly Father, ascribing to him all the attributes of the true deity; as, that he is omniscient, and that all things are open to his view, even the secrets of the heart. If, at any time, he asks questions, it is not, say they, for sake of information, but to remove the scruples of the incredulous and disaffected. They believe that Fo (or La) lives in him: hence those of his religion in China call him Ho-fo, or the living Fo. In consequence of this persuasion, he is held to be immortal, and that when in appearance he dies, he only changes his abode; that he is born again in an entire body, and the happy place of his residence is revealed by certain pretended tokens, which the Tartarian princes themselves are obliged to learn of the other Lamas; who only know the child appointed by the preceding Grand Lama to succeed him.

To keep up this opinion of his immortality, the Lamas after his death, seek, throughout the whole kingdom, for another person, as like unto him, in all respects, as may His successor. be, to supply his place; and thus he has undergone a new resurrection, or incarnation, seven times since his first appearance. Bernier relates the matter thus, as he had it from a Lama physician. When the Great Lama is old, and ready to die, he assembles his council, and declares to them, that now he was passing into the body of a little child, lately born; that when this child, who was bred up with great care, was six or seven years of age, they (by way of trial) laid before him a parcel of household goods mixed with his own, which yet he could distinguish from the rest: and this, he said, was a manifest proof of the transmigration.

Grueber says, that this belief is propagated by the policy of their kings, and those who are in the secret of this cheat, in conjunction with the Lama Konju. The missionaries rail heavily at this imposture, calling it wicked and diabolical, as if besides transubstantiation, which is worse, they had no other impostures in their own religion. But it is done, doubtless, out of envy; because they have none which redounds so much to the honour and wealth of themselves.

Grueber says, the Great Lama sitteth, in a remote apartment of his palace, adorned with gold and silver, Homage paid and illuminated with lamps, in a lofty place to him.

like a couch, covered with costly tapestry. In approaching him, his votaries fall prostrate with their heads to the ground, and kiss him with incredible veneration. Thus, adds the Jesuit, hath the devil, through his innate malignity, transferred to the worship of this people that veneration which is due only to the Pope of Rome, Christ's vicar, in the same manner as he hath done all the other mysteries of the Christian religion.

The same author further observes, that he always appears with his face covered; letting none see it but those who are in the secret: that he acts his part extremely well, while the Lamas or priests, who are perpetually about him, attend him with great assiduity, and expound the oracles that are taken from his mouth. Here it must be noted, that Grueber learns all he writes concerning the Great Lama from the citizens of Barantola; for the missionaries could not see him, no Christian being admitted into his presence, nor, indeed, any body of a different religion, without adoring the pretended deity: however, they took an exact copy of his picture, as it was exposed to view in the entrance of the palace; to which they paid the same veneration as to himself in person.

Bentink tells us, that at the foot of the high mountain near Putala, whereon the Dalay Lama resides, about twenty thousand Lamas dwell in several circles round it, according as the rank and dignities which they possess, render them more worthy to approach the person of their sovereign pontiff.

According to the account transmitted by Regis, the Grand Lama sits cross-legged on a kind of altar, with a large and magnificent cushion under him; where he receives the compliments, or rather adorations, not only of his own subjects, but of prodigious multitudes of strangers; who make long journeys to offer him their homage, and obtain his blessing. Some even travel there from India, who never fail to enlarge before him upon their own merit, and magnify the sufferings they have undergone in their painful pilgrimage. But next to the people of Thibet, the Tartars are most devoted to the Grand Lama, some of whom resort to Lasa from the most distant corners.

Princes are no more excused from this servile adoration than the meanest of their subjects; nor do they meet with more respect from the Grand Lama, who never moves from his cushion, nor any other way returns the salute. He only lays his hand upon the head of the worshippers, who then think all their sins pardoned. The Lamas who drew the map observed, that in receiving the emperor's ambassador, he did not kneel like the Tartar princes; but when he inquired after



Bramin carrying an iron collar. p. 557.



Bramin chained to the foot of a tree. p. 557,

Kang-ki's health, resting upon one hand, he only made a small motion, as if he intended to rise from his seat. He was at that same time dressed in a red habit of woollen frize, such as the common Lamas wear, with a yellow hat gilt.

Grueber assures us that the grandees of the kingdom are very eager to procure the excrements of this divinity, which they usually wear about their necks as relicks. In another place, he says that the Lamas make a great advantage by the large presents they receive for helping the grandees to some of his excrements, or urine; for by wearing the first about their necks, and mixing the latter with their victuals, they imagine themselves to be secure against all bodily infirmities. In confirmation of this, Gerbillon informs us, that the Mongols wear his excrements pulverized in little bags about their necks, as precious relicks, capable of preserving them from all misfortunes, and curing them of all sorts of distempers. When this Jesuit was on his second journey into Western Tartary, a deputy from one of the principal Lamas, offered the Emperor's uncle a certain powder, contained in a little packet of very white paper, neatly wrapped up in a scarf of very white taffety: but that prince told him, that as it was not the custom of the Manchews to make use of such things, he durst not receive it. The author took this powder to be either some of the Great Lama's excrements, or the ashes of something that had been used by him.

Trophies are erected on the tops of the mountains in honour of the Great Lama, for the preservation of men and cattle. All the kings, who profess the religion of the great Lama, before they are inaugurated, send ambassadors, with very rich presents, to crave his benediction, as a means to render their reigns happy.

Formerly, the Dalay Lama was a mere spiritual prince; but he is now become a temporal one also, with a large patrimony; the Chian of the Eluths, who conquered it in the seventeenth century, having made him a present of it, which is a much larger patrimony than that called St. Peter's, usurped by the popes. Yet, for all this, Bentink informs us, that he does not meddle, in any sort, with the temporality of his dominions, or suffer any of his Lamas to meddle with it; but puts all secular matters under the government of two Khans of the Kalmucks, who are to furnish him with all things necessary for the maintenance of his family. When he has any political affairs to transact, it is the Deva, (or Tipa, a sort of plenipotentiary,) who acts under his orders.

The religion of the Great Lama seems to be more extended than any other in the world: for besides Thibet, which is its native seat, it has spread itself over all the Indies, China, and Western Tartary, from one end to the other. It is true, the provinces of the Indies and China, have many ages ago, thrown off his jurisdiction, and set up chief priests of their own, who have modelled the religion of their respective countries, according to their different fancies, or interest. But Thibet, and the greater part of Tartary, are still subject to him in spirituals. The better to govern this vast dominion, he constitutes deputies, or vicars, to officiate in his stead. These are called Hutuktus, or Khu-tuktus; which, according to Regis, are chosen from among the disciples of the Great Lama. It is esteemed a real happiness to be admitted into the number of these last, which never exceeds two hundred; and they on whom the honour of Hutuktu is conferred are considered as so many lesser Fos; they are neither confined to the pagods, nor limited to Thibet, but settle where they please; and soon acquire great riches, by the offerings of their numerous worshippers. One of them who resided among the Kalka Mongols, about the beginning of the last century, set up for himself, in opposition to his master, assuming all the privileges and powers which the Grand Lama pretends to; and, in all likelihood, others from time to time will follow his example.

For keeping up discipline and order in ecclesiastical matters there is a kind of hierarchy in Thibet, consisting of church officers, answering to the archbishops, bishops, and priests. They have also their priors, abbots, and abbesses, superiors, provincials, or such like degrees, for ordering what concerns the regular clergy. The Lamas, or priests, who preside over the temples throughout the country, are sent from the college of the Lama's disciples before mentioned. The other Lamas officiate as assistants at divine service in the churches and monasteries; or go abroad on the mission into foreign countries.

Regis says, the Lamas generally wear a woollen frize like ours, but narrower, and not so close; yet it is lasting, and retains its colour. They use, besides the hat, different kinds of bonnets, according to their several dignities; one of which is somewhat remarkable, as it resembles our bishops' mitres, but they wear the slit before.

The Great Lama's colour is red; but as the emperor of China has gained some footing in Thibet, those of his party, as well as all the Mongol and Kalka Lamas, wear yellow. Bentink, speaking of these latter, observes, that they go habited

in long yellow robes, with great sleeves, which they bind about their waist with a girdle of the same colour, two fingers broad. They have the head and beard shaved very close, and wear yellow hats. They always carry a great pair of beads of coral, or yellow amber, in their hands, which they turn incessantly between their fingers, saying prayers to themselves after their manner. The nuns wear very nearly the same dress, excepting that they wear bonnets edged with fur, instead of hats, which the Lamas wear.

There are several princes in Thibet, who assume the Lama habit, and under the titles of the Grand Lama's principal officers, act almost independently of him. The dignity of Lama is not limited to the natives of Thibet alone. The Tartars and Chinese, who are equally ambitious of this honour, go to Lassa to obtain it.

The multitude of Lamas in Thibet is incredible, hardly a family being without one, either out of their devotion, or expectations of preferment in the Grand Lama's service. The rules of the Lamas are too many and burdensome, to be observed by one Lama; therefore they divide the load among them, one confining himself to this particular duty, and another to that; but they are all obliged to conform to celibacy, as well as to renounce worldly grandeur and employments.

As to their character, if you will take it from their greatest adversaries, the missionaries, most of them are debauched; yet they govern princes, who give them the chief place in assemblies, and are blindly followed by their votaries, who give the best of what they have. Some of them are tolerably skilled in medicine; others have some notion of astronomy, and can calculate eclipses. Bernier met with one of these Lama physicians at Kashmir, who came in the train of an ambassador from Great Thibet. He had with him a book of recipes, which he would by no means part with.

The religion of these tribes is a mixture of Lamaism, Islamism, and Gentooism, partaking, in some cases, also of a resemblance of the corruptions of the Greek and Roman churches. The idolatrous tribes principally follow the worship of the Grand Lama; but even a grosser species of idolatry is followed by some of the Tartars, particularly some of the Cossacks, who inhabit the borders of China.

Some of them are the grossest idolaters, and worship little rude images, which generally consist of a small bit of wood a few inches in length; the upper part is rounded off, and adorned with some rude marks to resemble the human fea-

Chinese and
Russian Tar-
tar Tribes.

tures, and being thus prepared, the figure is dressed up in rags. In fine weather and prosperous seasons, they caress these ragged deities, but are apt to treat them very roughly when the contrary happens.

Others of the Tartars profess a belief in the existence of one supreme God, the Creator of all things, who has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, who are left to act according to their own pleasure, and consequently whose favour it is necessary to obtain by special acts of homage and attention.

It is the custom among some of the Tartar nations to burn their dead, and inter their ashes on an eminence, upon which they raise a heap of stones, and place on it little banners; but the greater part of the Pagan Tartars bury their dead, and with each man his best horse and moveables, for his use in the other world. Others, however, throw their dead into open fields, to be devoured by the dogs, of which many run wild, and some are kept for this purpose. If the bodies are thus devoured by any number exceeding six, they think honourably of the deceased; otherwise he is a disgrace to his relations.

On some of the skirts of the villages are seen tombs, which are larger and better built than the houses; each of them encloses three, four, or five biers, of a neat workmanship, ornamented with Chinese stuffs, some pieces of which are brocade. Bows, arrows, lines, and, in general, the most valuable articles belonging to these people, are suspended in the interior of the monuments, the wooden door of which is closed with a bar, supported at its extremities by two props.

Although no external distinction seems to exist between the living inhabitants, yet the same cannot be said of the dead, whose ashes repose in a style of greater or less magnificence, according to their wealth; it is probable that the labour of a long life, would scarcely defray the expense of one of these sumptuous mausolea; which, however, bear no comparison with the monuments of more civilized people. The bodies of the poorest inhabitants are exposed in the open air, on a bier, placed upon a stage, supported by stakes. They all appear to hold their dead in great veneration, and to employ the whole of their industry and ingenuity in procuring them an honourable burial. They are interred with their clothes on, and the arms and implements that they made use of when alive; and it would probably be esteemed sacrilege to take any of these away.

The *Mongols* on the frontiers of China have built several temples in the countries which they inhabit: one of these is

near the river Tchikoi. It was formerly their principal temple, and the lama who officiated there had the superintendence of all the others. The Mongols.

There is another spacious edifice of this kind, twenty-five wersts from the town of Selinginsk, to the south-west of the lake of Kulling Noor, which possesses the supremacy over four others.

The *Bouraits* and *Bourettes*, of Mongol origin, were not known till the 17th century, the period of the conquest of the west part of Siberia by the Russians. They also The Bouraits. reside on the frontiers of China, in the government of Irkutzk, along the Angara and the Lena, to the south of Lake Baikal, and in Daouria. Their number is estimated at ninety-three thousand. Still attached to a roving life, they have no other habitations than huts made with poles, and covered with pieces of felt tied with hair ropes. The fire occupies the centre. The huts of each family form a small village. Their furniture is very simple: broad benches serve for a bed; they have a pillow of hair or feathers, under which they put the casket containing their most valuable effects.

The religion of the Bouraits is a mixture of Lamaism and Shamanism. In their huts they have wooden idols, naked or clothed; others are of felt, tin, or lamb's skin; and others again rude daubings with soot by the Shamans, who give them arbitrary names. The women are not allowed to approach or to pass before them. The Bourait, when he goes out, or returns to his hut, bows to his idols, and this is almost the only daily mark of respect that he pays them. He annually celebrates two festivals in honour of them, and at these men only have a right to be present. The priests preside at a sacrifice: a sheep is commonly chosen for the victim, which they slaughter by ripping open the belly; the heart is then taken out, and the Shaman places a small flock of wool cut from the back in the lungs, which ceremony is designed to preserve the other sheep from all kinds of diseases. The flesh is afterwards separated from the bones, dressed, and set before the idols, where it is left the whole time the Shaman is singing. When he has finished, he repeats fresh prayers, with abundance of ceremonies, throwing into the fire four spoonfuls of broth, and as many small pieces of meat; the rest is distributed among the company. Before he dismisses the assembly, the priests set up a flesh song, much more obstreperous than the first, accompanied with shivering, leaping, and howling, pronouncing the names of different demons, which makes the Bouraits believe that he is cursing them, and will thereby

prevent those spirits from injuring them or their herds. Particular sacrifices take place on occasion of a journey, sickness, or accident.

SEC. IV.—RELIGIOUS DOCTRINES, CEREMONIES, AND CUSTOMS OF THE HINDOOS.

THE most singular people on the globe, in respect to religion, are doubtless the Hindoos, or the inhabitants of Hindostan, a country in Asia, bounded S. E. by the General view of the religion of the Hindoos. Coromandel coast and Bay of Bengal, and extending north to the boundary of Cashmere, beginning in Lat. 8, and running to 35 N., near 2000 miles in length.

Of the great antiquity of this people, and of the permanency of their religion and customs, there appears no reasonable grounds to doubt. In almost every respect, these

Antiquities. are the same now as they were in the most ancient periods of the history of India, of which we possess the most faint knowledge. It is supposed, however, by many authors, that the religion of Boodha,* which still remains in the Burman empire, Ceylon, &c. was in very remote times the prevalent religion of Hindostan. At present, it is the

Gods. Brahminical. Brahma, the creating power; Vishnu, the preserver; and Siva, the destroyer, are their three greatest deities. Since the creation of the world, however, Brahma interests himself little with mundane affairs. He is regarded as the father of legislators; since from his ten sons all science and laws proceeded, while he himself was the author of the Vedas, or sacred books. Of his sons, Menou is the most celebrated. From him the Hindoos derive the institutes which bear his name. Brahma is represented with four hands, and a crown on his head. The image of the flamingo, on the wings of which he is supposed to fly, is constantly placed near the statue in the temple. His wife, whose name is Seraswatee, is regarded as the patroness of learning. Vishnu, whose province is to preserve and protect mankind, is represented as constantly attended by an eagle, or large brown kite, and as having four hands and a number of heads, emblematical of his omniscience and omnipotence. He is said to have passed through the different carnations, in all of which he destroyed the enemies of the human race. His wife, or female favourite, is Sree, the goddess of fortune and plenty.

* This word is spelt differently by different authors.

Siva is worshipped not only as a destroyer, but also as a reproducer. His principal characters are Budra, Iswara, and Mahadeo. As the first, he is cruel; as the second, he is worshipped as the lord of all; and under the third name, he is known in the mountainous parts of India. He is a great favourite with the common people. He is generally represented with only one head; the number of his hands varies from four to thirty-two. Round his neck there are strung a number of human skulls. His hat is the skin of the tiger or elephant. His wife, Parvaty, is the goddess of time, and the punisher of evil doers. Besides these great deities, there is a number of inferior ones, the principal of whom are those who preside over death and hell; he gods of fire, of medicine, of the wind, and of the atmosphere. Ganesa, whom Sir William Jones justly compares to Janus, is invoked the first, by the Brahmins, in all sacrifices. His name, and that of Seraswatee, appear at the beginning of all writings; and his statue is placed on roads, and at the boundaries of villages, &c. There are two great sects among the Hindoos; the worshippers of Vishnu, and those of Siva. Formerly the worship of the former appears to have predominated on the Coromandel coast, while on the opposite coast, especially in the neighbourhood of Bombay, that of Siva prevailed. The followers of Vishnu distinguished themselves by painting their faces with a horizontal line; the followers of Siva draw a perpendicular line. The gopee chunden, a white clay, taken from a holy tank near Positra in Guzerat, and chalk from the vicinity of the celebrated temple of Dwaraca, in the same province, are used for this purpose, as well as distinguishing the different castes. There is, however, very little difference in point of religion between these or any other Hindoo sects.

Vishnu is believed to have undergone nine avatars, or incarnations; the most celebrated is the eighth, when he appeared as Krishna, and, by his victories, obliged the Hindoos to substitute the offering of images instead of human sacrifices, and milk for blood. The tenth incarnation of Vishnu has not yet taken place. The religion of the Hindoos is contained in their sacred books, called Vedas, the divine authority of which, however, is rejected by the Jains in the south of India,—a sect who differ in some important tenets from those who follow the Brahminical religion. All the Hindoo sects believe in the immortality of the soul, transmigration, and a future state of rewards and punishments; but their faith in these important points is intermixed and debased by the most absurd legendary tales and mystical allegories.

Having presented our readers with the foregoing general view of the religious system of the Hindoos, we shall proceed to such details in respect to their religious ceremonies and customs as our limits permit; observing, however, that such as would desire a full account of the various superstitious opinions and practices of this extraordinary people, may consult the ample account given by Dr. Ward, in his "View of the History, Literature, and Religion of the Hindoos."

The first objects of worship among the Hindoos are supposed to have been fire, air, water, earth, and space, together with the heavenly bodies and aerial beings. But

Worship. as such a system of mythology could in no wise account for the existence and government of the universe, later Hindoo theologians added three new gods, under the characters of the Creator, the Preserver, and the Destroyer—Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva. Besides the gods already named, and others which might be named, the Hindoo worship extends to the various objects of nature, among which we may specify the following:

1. *The Worship of Human Beings.* The Hindoos worship their spiritual guides; also, Brahmuns, and their wives and daughters: and, among the Vamacharees, women of the lowest cast, and even prostitutes, are worshipped with rites too abominable to be recorded.

2. *The Worship of Beasts.* The cow is an object of worship, and receives the homage of the Hindoos at an annual festival. The very dung of the cow is eaten as an atonement for sin; and, with its urine, is used in worship. A Hindoo does not carry any thing out of his house in the morning, till he has rubbed his door-way with cow-dung. Notwithstanding this reverence, the bullocks employed in carrying burdens, and at the plough, are used more cruelly by the Hindoos than any other animals. *Hunoomanu*, the *Monkey*, has also been placed among the gods, as a form of Shivu. Temples of this god are to be seen, and in some places his image is worshipped daily; he is even chosen by many as their guardian deity. *Hunoomanu* bears some resemblance to Pan; and, like him, owes his birth to the god of the winds. The *dog*, the *jackal*, and a number of other animals, have also places among the Hindoo deities, though they are not greatly honoured.

3. *Worship of Birds.* *Gurooru*, the carrier of Vishnoo, half a bird and half a man, has received deification, as well as his brother *Uroonu*, the charioteer of Vishnoo. *Jutayoo*, another bird, the friend of *Ramu*, receives divine honours; as do the eagle of *Coromandel*, (said to be an incarnation of

Doorga,) the wag-tail, the peacock, the goose, and the owl; but the honours they receive are not of the highest kind.

4. *Worship of Trees.* The Hindoos do not seem ever to have consecrated groves, but several trees they esteem sacred. Toolusee, a female raised to deity by Vishnoo, was cursed by Lukshmee, his wife, in a fit of jealousy, and turned into a tree of this name; which the Hindoos preserve with great care near their houses, and erect pillars to its honour. The heads of these pillars, which commonly open like a cup, are filled with earth, and the plant is placed in them. Its leaves and wood are esteemed sacred; and with the latter they make their beads, with which they repeat the names of their guardian deities. Several other trees receive almost an equal homage. It is considered as a great sin among the Hindoos for any member of a family to cut down trees planted by an ancestor; and the misfortunes of many a family have been ascribed to such an act of indiscretion.

5. *River Worship.* The Hindoos not only reverence their rivers, but actually worship them, dividing them into male and female deities. But Gunga, (the Ganges,) both in their poems, their Pooranus, and in the superstitious customs of the natives, appears to rank highest among the river deities. She is declared to have descended from Vishnoo's heaven; an anniversary of which event is celebrated by particular festivities. The most extravagant things are related in the Pooranus respecting the purifying nature of these waters; and several works have been written to extol the saving properties of the Ganges. Its waters are carried to immense distances; every thing they touch becomes purified; crowds of Hindoos perform their worship on the river daily after purifying themselves in the stream; the sick are laid on its banks, expecting recovery from the mere sight of this goddess; and it is reckoned a great calamity not to die within sight of Gunga. Many other rivers receive the honours of divine worship.

6. *Worship of Fish.* Even the finny tribes are honoured by the Hindoos, though the worship paid to them is of an inferior sort.

7. *The Worship of Books* is very common among this people. The lower orders have such a profound respect for a book, that they think every thing in such a form must be divine. On several occasions a book is converted into an image, and worshipped with all the form used before the most popular idol.

8. *Worship of Stones.* The Shalugramu, as a form of

Vishnoo, is more frequently worshipped than any other idol in India, not excepting the Linga itself; which perhaps ought to be placed next, and which is also a stone. The representatives of Panchanunu and other gods are shapeless stones. Many images of idols sold in the markets are made of stone, and worshipped.

9. *A Log of Wood.* The pedal with which rice is cleansed from the husk has also been raised to god ship by the Hindoos.

The festivals of the Hindoos are numerous. Our limits will permit us to notice only the following, namely, the festival in honour of the God Siva, and the festival of Juggernaut.

In the month Choitru an abominable festival is celebrated in honor of Siva, which is thus described by Mr. Ward. In

Festival of Siva. the year 1806 I went to Kaleeghatu, in company with two or three friends, to witness these practices; at which place we arrived about five o'clock in the morning. We overtook numerous companies who were proceeding thither, having with them drums and other instruments of music; also spits, canes, and different articles to pierce their tongues and sides. Some with tinkling rings on their ancles were dancing and exhibiting indecent gestures as they passed along, while others rent the air with the sounds of their filthy songs. As we entered the village where the temple of this great goddess is situated, the crowds were so great that we could with difficulty get our vehicles along, and at last were completely blocked up. We then alighted, and went amongst the crowd. But who can describe a scene like this? Here, men of all ages, who intended to have their tongues pierced, or their sides bored, were buying garlands of flowers to hang round their necks, or tie round their heads; there, others were carrying their offerings to the goddess: above the heads of the crowd were seen nothing but the feathers belonging to the great drums, and the instruments of torture which each victim was carrying in his hand. These wretched slaves of superstition were distinguished from others by the quantity of oil rubbed on their bodies, and by streaks and dots of mud all over them: some of the chief men belonging to each company were covered with ashes, or dressed in a most fantastic manner, like the fool among mountebanks. For the sake of low sport, some were dressed as English women; and others had on a hat, to excite the crowd to laugh at Europeans. As soon as we could force our way, we proceeded to the temple of Ka-

lee, where the crowd, inflamed to madness, almost trampled upon one another, to obtain a sight of the idol. We went up to the door-way, when a Brahmun, who was one of the owners of the idol, addressed one of my companions in broken English : " Money—money—for black mother." My friend not much liking the looks of his black mother, declared he should give her nothing. From this spot we went into the temple yard, where two or three blacksmiths had begun the work of piercing the tongues and boring the sides of these infatuated disciples of Shivu, or Siva. The first man seemed reluctant to hold out his tongue ; but the blacksmith, rubbing it with something like flour, and having a piece of cloth betwixt his fingers, laid firm hold, dragged it out, and, placing his lancet under it in the middle, pierced it through, and let the fellow go. The next person whose tongue we saw cut, directed the blacksmith to cut it on a contrary side, as it had been already cut twice. This man seemed to go through the business of having his tongue slit with perfect *sang froid*. The company of natives were entirely unmoved, and the blacksmith, pocketing the trifling fee given by each for whom he did this favour, laughed at the sport. I could not help asking, whether they were not punishing these men for lying. After seeing the operation performed on one or two more, we went to another group, where they were boring the sides. The first we saw undergoing this operation was a boy, who might be twelve or thirteen years old, and who had been brought thither by his elder brother to submit to this cruelty. A thread rubbed with clarified butter was drawn through the skin on each side with a kind of lancet having an eye like a needle. He did not flinch, but hung by his hands over the shoulders of his brother. I asked a man who had just had his sides bored why he did this? He said, he had made a vow to Kalee at a time of dangerous illness, and was now performing this vow : a bye-stander added, it was an act of holiness or merit. Passing from this group, we saw a man dancing backwards and forwards with two canes run through his sides as thick as a man's little finger. In returning to Calcutta we saw many with things of different thicknesses thrust through their sides and tongues, and several with the pointed handles of iron shovels, containing fire, sticking in their sides. Into this fire every now and then they threw Indian pitch, which for the moment blazed very high. I saw one man whose singular mode of self-torture struck me much : his breast, arms, and other parts of his body, were entirely covered with pins, as thick as nails or packing needles

This is called vanu-phora.* The person had made a vow to Shivu thus to pierce his body, praying the god to remove some evil from him.

"Some sunyasees at this festival put swords through the holes in their tongues; others spears; others thick pieces of round iron, which they call arrows. Many, as a bravado, put other things through their tongues, as living snakes, bamboos, ramrods, &c. Others, to excite the attention of the crowd still more, procure images of houses, gods, temples, &c. and placing them on a single bamboo, hold them up in their hands, and put the bamboo through their tongues. In 1805, at Calcutta, a few base fellows made a bamboo stage, placed a prostitute upon it, and carried her through the streets, her paramour accompanying them, having one of her ancle ornaments in the slit of his tongue. Another year, a man put his finger through the tongue of another person, and they went along dancing and making indecent gestures together. Others put bamboos, ropes, canes, the stalk of a climbing plant, the long tube of the hooka, &c. through their sides, and rubbing these things with oil, while two persons go before and two behind to hold the ends of the things which have been passed through the sides, they dance backwards and forwards, making indecent gestures. These people pass through the streets with these marks of self-torture upon them, followed by crowds of idle people. They are paid by the towns or villages where these acts are performed, and a levy is made on the inhabitants to defray the expense. On the evening of this day, some sunyasees pierce the skin of their foreheads, and place a rod of iron on it as a socket, and on this rod fasten a lamp, which is kept burning all night. The persons bearing these lamps sit all night in or near Shivu's temple, occasionally calling upon this god by different names. On the same evening, different parties of sunyasees hold conversations respecting Shivu in verse.

"On the following day, in the afternoon, the ceremony called Churuku, or the swinging by hooks fastened in the back, is performed. The posts are erected in Churuku. some open place in the town or suburbs; they are generally fifteen, twenty, or twenty-five cubits high. In some places a kind of worship is paid at the foot of the tree to Shivu, when two pigeons are let loose, or slain. In other parts, i. e. in the neighbourhood of Calcutta, the worship of Shivu is performed at his temple; after which the crowd pro-

* Piercing with arrows.



Idol of the Laplanders. p. 558.



Idol of the Laplanders. p. 558.

The Virginians had a great veneration for their priests; and the latter endeavoured to procure it, by daubing themselves all over in a very frightful manner; dressing themselves in a very odd habit, and tricking up their hair after a very whimsical manner. Every thing they said was considered as an oracle, and made a strong impression on the minds of the people: they often withdrew from society, and lived in woods or in huts, far removed from any habitation. They were difficult of access; and did not give themselves any trouble about provisions, because care was always taken to set food for them near their habitations. They were always addressed in cases of great necessity. They also acted in the quality of physicians, because of the great knowledge they were supposed to have of nature. In fine, peace or war was determined by their voice, nor was any thing of importance undertaken without first consulting them.

They had not any stated times nor fixed days, on which they celebrated their festivals, but they regulated them only by the different seasons of the year. As for instance, they celebrated one day at the arrival of their wild birds, another upon the return of the hunting season, and for the maturity of their fruits: but the greatest festival of all was at harvest time. They then spent several days in diverting themselves, and enjoyed most of their amusements, such as martial dances, and heroic songs.

After their return from war, or escaping some danger, they lighted fires, and made merry about them, each having his gourd-bottle, or his little bell, in his hand. Men, women, and children, often danced in a confused manner about these fires. Their devotions in general consisted only of acclamations of joy, mixed with dances and songs; except in seasons of sorrow and affliction, when they were changed into howlings. The priests presided at this solemnity, dressed in their sacerdotal ornaments, part of which were the gourd-bottle, the petticoat above-mentioned, and the serpents' or weasels' skins, the tails of which were dexterously tied upon their heads like a tiara, or triple-crown. These priests began the song, and always opened the religious exercise, to which they often added incantations, part of the mysteries of which were comprehended in the songs above-mentioned. The noise, the gestures, the wry faces, in a word, every thing contributed to render these incantations terrible.

The deities of the ancient Mexicans are said to have exceeded two thousand, who had their respective temples, ceremonies, and sacrifices. There was

Mexicans.

hardly a street without its tutelary divinity, nor was there scarcely a disease which had not its peculiar altar, to which the Mexicans flocked, in order to be healed. Their principal deity was *Vitzliputzli*, whom they considered the sovereign lord of all things, and creator of heaven and earth. The greatest god after *Vitzliputzli* was the *Sun*. Another of their divinities, was *Tlaloch*, whom some writers confound with *Tescalipuca*. But these were considered brothers, of equal strength, and so similar in disposition, that the sovereign power of war was divided between them. *Tescalipuca* was, however, more appropriately the god of penance, whom the Mexicans invoked in seasons of adversity. The *Mercury* and *Plutus* of the Mexicans, the former of whom was sometimes called *Quitزالcoalt*, was represented under a human shape, except that it had the head of a bird, with a painted paper mitre upon its head, and a scythe in its hand. The body of it was covered with jewels of extraordinary value. Besides the foregoing, the Mexicans worshipped various other deities, among whom we shall mention only *Tozi*, a beautiful woman, for whom, at her death, *Vitzliputzli* procured divine honours. Nearly all their divinities were clothed with terror, and delighted in vengeance. The figures of serpents, of tigers, and of other destructive animals, decorated their temples. Fasts, mortifications, and penances, all rigid, and many of them excruciating to an extreme degree, were the means which they employed to appease the wrath of the gods. But of all offerings, human sacrifices were deemed the most acceptable. At the dedication of the great temple at Mexico, it is reported there were 60 or 70,000 human sacrifices. The usual amount of them was about 20,000.

The city of Mexico is said to have contained nearly 2000 small temples, and 360 which were adorned with steeples. The whole empire of Mexico contained above 40,000 temples, endowed with very considerable revenues. For the service in the grand temple of Mexico itself, above 5000 priests were appointed; and the number in the whole empire is said to have amounted to nearly a million. The whole priesthood, excepting that of the conquered nations, was governed by two high-priests, who were also the oracles of the kings. Beside the service in the temple, their clergy were to instruct the youth, to compose the calendars, and to paint the mythological pictures. The Mexicans had also priestesses, but they were not allowed to offer up sacrifices. They likewise had monastic orders, especially one, into which no person was admitted under sixty years of age.

to be great, powerful, beneficial, or hurtful to mankind; yet they conceived an almighty Being, who dwells in the south-west regions of the heavens, to be superior to all the rest. This almighty Being they called Kichtan, who at first, according to their tradition, made a man and a woman out of a stone; but, upon some dislike, destroyed them again, and then made another couple out of a tree, from whom descended all the nations of the earth: but how they came to be scattered and dispersed into countries so remote from one another, they cannot tell. They believed their supreme God to be a good being, and paid a sort of acknowledgment to him for plenty, victory, and other benefits. But there is another power, which they call hobamocko, (i. e. the devil,) of whom they stood in greater awe, and worshipped merely from a principle of fear. The immortality of the soul was in some sort universally believed among them. When good men die, they said, their spirits go to Kichtan, where they meet their friends, and enjoy all manner of pleasures. When wicked men die, they go to Kichtan also; but are commanded to walk away, and to wander about in restless discontent and darkness for ever.

The original inhabitants of Canada, like other heathen, had an idea of a supreme Being, whom they considered as the creator and governor of the world. It is said, that most of the nations which speak the Algonquin language give this Being the appellation of the Great Hare, but some call him Michabou, and others Atahocan. They believe that he was born upon the waters, together with his whole court, who were composed of four-footed animals, like himself; that he formed the earth of a grain of sand taken from the bottom of the ocean; and that he created men of the bodies of dead animals. Some mention a god of the waters, who opposed the designs of the Great Hare, who is called the Great Tiger. They have a third called Matcomek, whom they invoke in the winter season.

According to the Iroquois, in the third generation there came a deluge, in which not a soul was saved; so that, in order to repopulate the earth, it was necessary to change beasts into men. Besides the first Being, or Great Spirit, they hold an infinite number of genii, or inferior spirits, both good and evil, who have each their peculiar form of worship. They ascribe to these beings a kind of immensity and omnipresence, and constantly invoke them as the guardians of mankind; and they only address themselves to the evil genii, to beg of them to do them no

Indians of
New England.

Canadians.

Iroquois.

hurt. They believe in the immortality of the soul, and say that the region of their everlasting abode lies so far westward, that the souls are several months in arriving at it, and have vast difficulties to surmount. The happiness that they hope to enjoy is not believed to be the recompense of virtue only, but to have been a good hunter, brave in war, &c. are the chief merits which entitle them to their paradise: this they and other American natives describe as a delightful country blessed with perpetual spring, whose forests abound with game, whose rivers swarm with fish, where famine is never felt, but uninterrupted plenty shall be enjoyed without labour or fatigue.*

The Indians of Virginia, gave the names of *Okee*, *Quioccos*, or *Kiwasa*, to the idol which they worshipped. These names

Virginians. might possibly be so many epithets, which they varied according to the several functions they ascribed to this deity, or the different notions they might form to themselves of it in their religious exercises, and common discourses. Moreover, they were of opinion that this idol is not one sole being, but that there were many more of the same nature, besides the tutelary gods. They gave the general name of *Quioccos* to all these genii, or beings, so that the name of *Kiwasa* might be particularly applied to the idol in question.

These savages consecrated chapels and oratories to this deity, in which the idol was often represented under a variety of shapes. They even kept some of these in the most retired part of their houses, to whom they communicated their affairs, and consulted them upon occasion. In this case they made use of them in the quality of tutelary gods, from whom they supposed they received blessings on their families.

The sacerdotal vestment of their priests was like a woman's petticoat plaited, which they put about their necks, and tied over the right shoulder; but they always kept one arm out to use it as the occasion required. This cloak was made round at bottom, and descended no lower than the middle of the thigh: it was made of soft well-dressed skins, with the hair outwards.

These priests shaved their heads close, the crown excepted, where they left only a little tuft, that reached from the top of the forehead to the nape of the neck, and even on the top of the forehead. They here left a border of hair, which, whether it was owing to nature, or the stiffness contracted by the fat and colours with which they daubed themselves, bristled up, and came forward like the corner of a square cap.

* Hannah Adams's Dict. of All Religions.

ever, each one touches fire, and chews some bitter leaves, to signify that parting with relations by death, is an unpleasant task.

The Bramins undergo voluntary austerities of great severity. Of one, Mr. Rogers gives the following account. After having finished various services, he went into the green on which the pagod stood, where two ^{Religious} bamboos were raised like poles, in the shape of ^{Austerities.} a gibbet, at the top of which two ropes were fixed with a slip-knot. Underneath was a square pit, where he lighted a fire, and laid some sticks near it. After this he turned himself thrice round the fire, observing, by way of respect, to have the pit always at his right; then prostrating himself several times, he went up, twisted the ropes about his feet, then suspending himself with his head downwards, and his face turned towards the flame, he swung himself up and down like a bell, and increased the fire by throwing wood into it, which was in his reach. After this painful exercise, which lasted half an hour, he came down, went round the pit, and returning into the pagod, seated himself as before. In this manner did this Bramin exercise himself daily, not in the view of obtaining heaven, for that he looked upon as granted, but in order to attain a pure and exalted degree of felicity. However, he was censured by the rest of the Bramins, for violating, as they said, the law, in not having made choice of such a holy place as the Joguis are permitted to spend their whole lives in.

Another Bramin had his head thrust through an iron collar of twenty-four pound weight, made like a rail, four feet in diameter at top. He had enjoined himself to carry it till such time as he had collected a great sum of money, in order to complete the building of an hospital.

Two others had long heavy chains upon their legs, one end of which came over their shoulders, and the other dragged upon the ground after them.

Another chained himself by the foot to a tree, with a firm resolution of dying in that place.

Another walked in wooden shoes stuck full of nails in the inside: whenever he put them on he used to lie along the ground with his hands clasped.

SEC. V.—RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF THE LAPLANDERS.

From the time that so large a portion of Lapland fell under the dominion of Sweden, repeated attempts were made to con-

vert the natives to the Christian faith; and the same object was diligently prosecuted by the Danish government. The Laplanders, however, continued to retain a strong attachment to their ancient mythology; and, even so late as the middle of the 18th century, a great part of the nation secretly worshipped idols, while publicly professing the Christian religion.

To these idols were presented various offerings and sacrifices. Upon any change of habitation, libations were made

Sacrifices. of whey or milk, to conciliate the guardian divinity of the place; and of brandy to the Lares or household gods, who were supposed to reside under the fire-place. To conciliate the favour of the deities to their children, sacrifices of sheep or deer were offered, before the child was born: a dog was buried alive at the moment of the birth; and some other animal killed when the infant was at the breast. Offerings and sacrifices were usually made for the removal of epidemic disorders, for success in hunting, &c. In these cases, sometimes the whole of the victim was presented, sometimes only a part, sometimes merely the bones, while the blood was sprinkled upon staves, which were left on the spot, or mingled with the waters of an adjacent river or lake. The liver of a bear, the horns and other parts of a deer, taken in the chase, were very frequently consecrated to the deity of the place.

The Laplanders, according to Picart, worship their gods under the form of a tree, or block of wood, the top of which

Idols. they form into a rude resemblance of a man's head. In the head they were wont to drive a large nail, to which was fastened a flint stone, that he might make himself a fire whenever he found one needful. Sometimes their god was raised upon a kind of table, which served in capacity of an altar. Their domestic deity, or household god, they represented under the form of a large stone, carved in a rude manner, and bearing some resemblance to a human face. The sacrifices which were offered to these idols were presented by a privileged class of men, named Noaids, who divided the victims with great expertness, and wore at the time of sacrificing a peculiar habit.

The Laplanders still retain much of their ancient superstitious spirit, even in the Christian rites, which they have adopted. They particularly regard the sacra-

Present state. ment as a powerful charm to preserve them from the attempts of evil spirits. It is not long since, they used to take a cloth with them to church, into which they were accustomed to spit out the sacramental bread, which they wrapped

up with great care, and afterwards divided into as great a number as possible of small crumbs. One of these crumbs was given to every one of their cattle, in the full persuasion that the herd would thus be secure from all injury. Their very deficient acquaintance with Christianity may, in some measure, be ascribed to the very inefficient manner in which they are instructed. It has generally been the practice of the Missionaries and pastors to address the natives by means of an interpreter, and the attempts of the Danish government to remedy this defect have hitherto proved unsuccessful.

The Laplanders rarely intermarry with the Norwegian, or other neighbouring nations. Their matrimonial negotiations are conducted with extraordinary formality and decorum. When a young man has selected his Marriage. object, he communicates his wishes to his own family, who repair in a body to the dwelling of the young woman's parents, carrying a slight present, such as a ring or ornamented girdle, to the fair one, and a quantity of brandy to entertain the friends. When arrived at the hut, the suitor is left without, till he shall be invited to enter; and as soon as the rest of the party have entered, their spokesman fills out a bumper of brandy, which he offers to the girl's father, and the acceptance of which indicates his approbation of the match to be proposed. After the liquor has gone round the company, leave is obtained for the young man to present himself, while his advocate in a set speech opens the treaty. The lover, upon being introduced, takes his seat near the door, at some distance from the rest; and it is only when the parents of the girl have signified their full consent, that he offers her the present which he has brought, and promises wedding clothes to her father and mother. Sometimes a sum of money is given, both to the bride and to her parents; and not unfrequently considerable bargaining is employed to raise the amount. All that the bride receives on this occasion becomes her own private property; and, among the better class, a wife, counting all expenses, commonly costs the husband about a hundred copper dollars. Should the parents depart from their promised consent, it is an established law, that they must repay all the expenses and presents, even to the brandy which has been drunk at the first visit. After the parties have been in this manner betrothed, the young man is allowed to visit the bride, whose favour he generally endeavours to conciliate by presenting tobacco, brandy, or whatever he thinks will be most acceptable. On the marriage day the bride appears in her best dress, but her head, commonly closely

covered, is, on this occasion, only adorned with a bandeau or fillet, while her hair flows loose upon her shoulders. The bans are usually published only once. The marriage ceremony, which is very short, is sometimes performed before, and sometimes after the entertainment. The wedding feast is celebrated in a frugal and sober manner, without music, dancing, or any other festivity. Such of the guests as are able, make a present to the bride of money, rein-deer, or other useful articles, to begin the stock, or furnish the dwelling of the young couple. In some parts of Lapland it is the custom that the friends and relations of the parties meet together, a few days after the marriage, and partake of a homely entertainment, consisting usually of a mess of broth, a little roast mutton, and metheglin. The bridegroom usually remains with the parents of the bride, for the space of one year; and, at his departure, receives what portion they are able to give with their daughter, to establish the young people in the world. It is usual, at the birth of a child, to assign a female rein-deer, with all her future offspring, as a provision for the boy or girl, who is thus, when grown up, not unfrequently the owner of a considerable herd.

The funerals of the Laplanders are conducted with little ceremony. The body, slightly wrapped in a coarse cloth, is carried to the grave by the friends and relatives, who are entertained with a slight repast, and a small portion of metheglin. In former times, it was the custom to raise a heap of stones over the grave; but an old sledge, turned with its bottom upwards, is now the only monument placed over the spot of interment. Before the conversion of the Laplanders to Christianity, they placed an axe and tinder-box beside the corpse of a man; and beside that of a woman, her needle and scissors, supposing them to require these implements in the other world. They likewise interred a quantity of provisions along with the dead body; and, during the first three years after the decease of a relative, were accustomed, from time to time, to deposit, in holes dug beside the grave, small quantities of tobacco, or of whatever was most agreeable to their departed friend during his lifetime.

Funerals.

SEC. VI.—RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF INDIAN TRIBES.

The aborigines of New England not only believed in a plurality of gods, who made and govern the several nations of the world, but they made deities of every thing they imagined

tors, and put some into the mouth of the corpse. Two priests next led her three times round it, while she threw rice among the bystanders, who gathered it up with great eagerness. The last time she went round, she placed a little earthen burning lamp to each of the four corners of the pile, then laid herself down on the right side, next to the body, which she embraced with both her arms, a piece of white cotton was spread over them both, they were bound together with two easy bandages, and a quantity of fire-wood, straw, and rosin, was laid upon them. In the last place, her nearest relations, to whom, on the banks of the river, she had given her nose-jewels, came with a burning torch, and set the straw on fire, and in a moment the whole was in a flame. The noise of the drums, and the shouts of the spectators, were such, that the shrieks of the unfortunate woman, if she uttered any, could not have been heard.

Voluntary suicide is considered an act of great merit. The person who is about to offer himself, is directed first to offer an atonement for all his sins, by making a present of gold to bramhuns, and honouring them with a feast; afterwards, putting on new apparel, and Voluntary suicide. adorning himself with garlands of flowers, he is accompanied to the river by a band of music. If he has any property, he gives it to whom he pleases: then, sitting down by the side of the river, he repeats the name of his idol, and proclaims, that he is now about to renounce his life in this place, in order to obtain such or such a benefit. After this, he and his friends proceed in a boat, and fastening pans of water to his body, he plunges into the stream. The spectators cry out, "Huree bul! Huree bul! Huzza! Huzza!" and then retire. Sometimes a person of property kindly interferes, and offers to relieve the wants of the victim if he will abstain from drowning himself; but the deluded man replies, that he wants nothing, as he is going to heaven!

People in some parts of India, particularly the inhabitants of Orissa, and of the eastern parts of Bengal, frequently offer their children to the goddess Gunga. The following reason is assigned for this practice: when Infanticide. a woman has been long married, and has no children, it is common for the man, or his wife, or both of them, to make a vow to the goddess Gunga, that if she will bestow the blessing of children upon them, they will devote the first-born to her. If after this vow they have children, the eldest is nourished till a proper age, which may be three, four, or more years, according to circumstances, when, on a particular day,

appointed for bathing in any holy part of the river, they take the child with them, and offer it to this goddess: the child is encouraged to go farther and farther into the water, till it is carried away by the stream, or is pushed off by its inhuman parents. Sometimes a stranger seizes the child, and brings it up, but it is abandoned by its parents from the moment it floats in the water, and if no one be found more humane than they it infallibly perishes. The principal places in Bengal where this species of murder is practised, are Gunga-Saguru, where the river Hoogley disembogues itself into the sea; Voidyuyatee, a town about fourteen miles to the north of Calcutta; Trivenee, Nudeeya, Chakduh, and Pruyagu.

A sick person, after his removal to the banks of the Ganges, if he possesses sufficient strength, directs quantities of food, garments, &c. to be presented to the bramhuns. Ceremonies at death. That he may not be compelled to cross Voiturune, whose waters are hot, in his way to the seat of judgment, he presents to a bramhun a black cow. When about to expire, the relations place the body up to the middle in the river, and direct the dying man to call aloud on the gods to assist him in doing so.

The burning of the body is one of the first ceremonies which the Hindoos perform for the help of the dead in a future state. If this ceremony have not been attended to, the shraddhu, or rites for the repose of the dead, cannot be performed. If a person be unable to provide wood, cloth, clarified butter, rice, water pans, and other things, beside the fee to the priest, he must beg among his neighbours. If the body be thrown into the river, or burnt, without the accustomed ceremonies, (as is sometimes the case,) the ceremonies may be performed over an image of the deceased, made of kooshu grass.

Immediately after death, the attendants lay out the body on a sheet, placing two pieces of wood under the head and feet; after which they anoint the corpse with clarified butter, bathe it with the water of the Ganges, put round the loins a new garment, and another over the left shoulder, and then draw the sheet on which the body lies, over the whole. The heir at law next bathes himself, puts on new garments, and boils some rice, a ball of which, and a lighted brand, he puts to the mouth of the deceased, repeating incantations. The pile having been prepared, he sets fire to it, and occasionally throws on it clarified butter and other combustibles. When the body is consumed, he washes the ashes into the river; the attendants bathe, and, presenting a drink-offering to the deceased, return home; before they enter the house, how-



Virginia Indians celebrating a victor.y p. 562.



Peruvians presenting offerings to the Sun. p. 565.

ceed to the swinging posts, and commence the horrid work of torture. The man who is to swing prostrates himself before the tree, and a person, with his dusty fingers, makes a mark where the hooks are to be put. Another person immediately gives him a smart slap on the back, and pinches up the skin hard with his thumb and fingers; while another thrusts the hook through, taking hold of about an inch of the skin; the other hook is then in like manner put through the skin on the other side of the back, and the man gets up on his feet. As he is rising, some water is thrown in his face. He then mounts on a man's back, or is elevated in some other way; and the strings which are attached to the hooks in his back are tied to the rope at one end of the horizontal bamboo, and the rope at the other end is held by several men, who, drawing it down, raise up the end on which the man swings, and by their running round with the rope the machine is turned. In swinging, the man describes a circle of about thirty feet diameter."

The festival of Juggernaut is annually held on the sea coast of Orissa, where there is a celebrated temple, and an idol of the god. The idol is a carved block of wood, with a frightful visage, painted black, and a dis- tended mouth of a bloody colour. He is dressed in gorgeous apparel, and his appellation is one of the numerous names of Vishnu, the preserving power of the universe, according to the theology of the Bramins. On festival days, the throne of the idol is placed upon a stupendous moveable tower, about 60 feet in height, resting on wheels, which indent the ground deeply as they turn slowly under the ponderous machine. He is accompanied by two other idols, his brother Balaram, and his sister Shubudra, of a white and yellow colour, each on a separate tower, and sitting on thrones of nearly an equal height. Attached to the principal tower, are six ropes, of the length and size of a ship's cable, by which the people draw it along. The priests and attendants are stationed around the throne on the car; and occasionally address the worshippers in libidinous songs and gestures. Both the walls of the temple and sides of the car are covered with the most indecent emblems, in large and durable sculpture. Obscenity and blood are the characteristics of the idol's worship. As the tower moves along, devotees, throwing themselves under the wheels, are crushed to death; and such acts are hailed with the acclamations of the multitude as the most acceptable sacrifices. A body of prostitutes are maintained in the temple for the use of the worshippers; and various other systematic indecencies, which will not admit of description,

form a part of the service. A number of sacred bulls are kept in the place, which are generally fed with vegetables from the hands of the pilgrims; but from the scarcity of the vegetation, are commonly seen walking about, and eating the fresh ordure of the worshipping crowds. In the temple also, is preserved a bone of Krishna, which is considered as a most venerable and precious relic, and which few persons are allowed to see.

The following account of the burning of a Gentoo woman, on the funeral pile of her deceased husband, is taken from the

Voyages of Stavorinus, who was an eyewitness to the ceremony. "We found," says M. Stavorinus, "the body of the deceased lying upon a

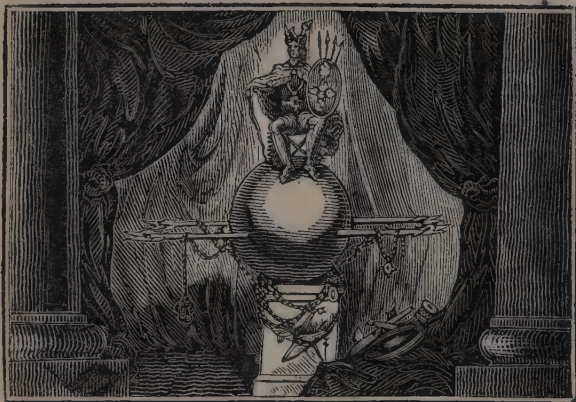
Burning of a widow. couch, covered with a piece of white cotton, and strewed with betel-leaves. The woman, who was to be the victim, sat upon the couch, with her face turned to that of the deceased. She was richly adorned, and held a little green branch in her right hand, with which she drove away the flies from the body. She seemed like one buried in the most profound meditation, yet betrayed no signs of fear. Many of her relations attended upon her, who, at stated intervals, struck up various kinds of music.

"The pile was made by driving green bamboo stakes into the earth, between which was first laid fire-wood, very dry and combustible; upon this was put a quantity of dry straw, or reeds, besmeared with grease: this was done alternately, till the pile was five feet in height, and the whole was then strewed with rosin finely powdered.—A white cotton sheet, which had been washed in the Ganges, was then spread over the pile, and the whole was ready for the reception of the victim.

"The widow was now admonished by a priest, that it was time to begin the rites. She was then surrounded by women, who offered her betel, and besought her to supplicate favours for them when she joined her husband in the presence of Ram, or their highest god; and, above all, that she would salute their deceased friends whom she might meet in the celestial mansions.

"In the mean time, the body of the husband was taken and washed in the river. The woman was also led to the Ganges for ablution, where she divested herself of all her ornaments. Her head was covered with a piece of silk, and a cloth was tied round her body, in which the priests put some parched rice.

"She then took a farewell of her friends, and was conducted by two of her female relations to the pile. When she came to it, she scattered flowers and parched rice upon the specta-



Vitzliputzli principal Deity of the Mexicans. p. 564.



Haloch an Idol of the Mexicans. p. 564.



The Peruvians, previously to being governed by their Incas, worshipped a great number of gods, or rather genii. There was no nation, family, city, street, or even house, but had its peculiar gods; and for this particular reason, that they thought none but the god to whom they immediately devoted themselves, was able to assist them in time of need. They worshipped herbs, plants, flowers, trees, mountains, caves, tigers, lions, adders; in fine, every thing that appeared wonderful in their eyes, was thought worthy of adoration.

These ancient idolaters of Peru offered not only the fruits of the earth and animals to these gods, but also their captives, like the rest of the Americans. It was their custom to sacrifice their own children, whenever there was a scarcity of victims.

Some other idolaters offered their own blood to their deities, which they drew from their arms and thighs, according as the sacrifice was more or less solemn; and they even used on extraordinary occasions, to bleed themselves at the tips of their nostrils, or between the eye-brows.

Such was the state of idolatry all over Peru, when the Inca *Manco-capac* the law-giver of that vast empire, taught the savages the worship of the *Sun*. From this time, sacrifices of various kinds of animals were offered in honour of the sun, and also cocoa, corn, rich clothes, and a liquor made of water and maize. They always presented the last offering to the sun, in the following manner: when they were very thirsty, they first satisfied their hunger, and afterwards dipped the tip of their finger in the vessel into which the liquor was poured: this being done, they lifted up their eyes to heaven in a very submissive manner; shook that finger on which the drop hung, and offered it to the sun as an acknowledgment for his goodness in providing drink for them. At the same time they gave two or three kisses to the air. This oblation being made they all drank as they thought proper.

Every time they entered their temples, the chief man in the company laid his hand on one of his eye-brows, and whether he tore off any of the hairs or not, he blew it into the air before the idol, as a mark of its being an oblation. They paid the same adoration to trees, and to all those things which a divine virtue had made sacred and religious.

The savages or Indians of the Caribbee Islands, if they may be so called, have no words, it is said, to express a Supreme Being; but acknowledge a good and an evil principle, both of which they call *Maboia*. They be-
Caribbees.

appropriates to himself, under the title of *Chemen*. To these Chemens, they offer the first of their fruits, and sometimes out of gratitude make a feast to their honour. They make better images resembling the form, under which Maboia reveals himself to them, in order to prevent his doing them any harm. They wear these images about their necks, and pretend that they give them ease. They also fast and cut themselves for his sake.

There was formerly at Campeche a square theatre, or scaffold, built of earth and stone, about four cubits high. Upon the theatre was fixed the marble statue of a man, whom two animals of an extraordinary shape seemed ready to tear in pieces. Near this figure, a serpent was also represented, forty-seven feet in length, and of a proportionable thickness, which swallowed up a lion. These two last figures were made of marble like the rest, and enclosed in some measure by pallsadoes. On the pavement were bows and arrows, bones and skulls. This is all we are told by Purchas concerning these figures, which possibly might have some mysterious signification couched under them.

In the sacrifices made to their idols, by the natives of Tobasco, they used to rip up the victim's breast and tear out his heart; they afterwards set, or rather enclosed, the bloody body of the victim in a hollow made in a particular part of the lion's neck. The blood of the victim fell into a stone reservoir, on the side of which was placed a stone statue representing a man, who seemed to look steadfastly at the blood of the sacrificed victim. As to the heart, the sacrificing priest, after having torn it out, smeared the idol's face with it, and then threw it into the fire, which was lighted for that purpose.

SEC. VII.—RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF AFRICAN TRIBES.

The natives of Africa universally believe in a Supreme Being, and have some ideas of a future state. They address this being by a *fetishe* or fetish, which is a sort of charm or manner of conducting their worship. The term is often applied to whatever represents their divinities.

The Negroes of Congo believe in a good and an evil principle, which are both supposed to reside in the sky. The former sends rain, the latter withholds it; but they do not seem to consider either of them as possessing any influence over human affairs. After death



Idols of Campeche. p. 566.



Idols of Tabasco. p. 566.

they all take their place in the sky, and enjoy a happy existence, without any regard being paid to their good or bad actions while here below.

Each town has a grand kissey, or presiding divinity. It is the figure of a man, the body stuck with feathers, rags, and bits of iron, and resembles nothing so much as one of our scarecrows. The chenoo of Cooloo had a kissey so redoubtable that if any person attempted to shoot at it, he would fall down dead, and the flint would drop out of the musket. This powerful divinity was the figure of a man, about two feet high, rudely carved in wood, and covered with rags.

Kolloh is the name of a great spirit who is supposed to reside in the vicinity of Yangroo, in Western Africa. He makes his abode in the woods, and is rarely seen except on mournful occasions, such as the death of the king or of some of their head men, or when a person has been buried without having observed the usual ceremonies of dancing, drinking palm wine, &c. in remembrance of their departed friends.

The Kolloh is made of bamboo sticks in the form of an oval basket, about three feet long, and so deep that it goes on to the man's shoulders. It is covered with a piece of net, and stuck all around with porcupine quills on the nose. It has a frightful appearance, and has a great effect in exciting the terror of the inhabitants.

A certain man pretends to have some very intimate intercourse with this Beelzebub, and therefore he is called by the spirit to take the Kolloh on his head, and to go about with it on certain occasions to see that the various ceremonies of the country are strictly observed, and if any are absent he seeks them out and drives them to the place of assembly.—He is a faithful servant of the Devil.

The Kolloh-man carries a stick in his hand to show his authority, and to give notice of his coming he rings a bell which is fixed inside of the Kolloh or basket. These Kolloh-men are a set of plunderers who disturb the peace and greatly deceive the ignorant natives.

The fetishes of Whidah may be divided into three classes; the *serpent*, *tall trees*, and the *sea*. The serpent is the most celebrated, the others being subordinate to the Whidah. power of this deity. This snake has a large round head, beautiful piercing eyes, a short, pointed tongue, resembling a dart: its pace slow and solemn, except when it seizes on its prey, then very rapid; its tail sharp and short, its skin of an elegant smoothness, adorned with beautiful colours, upon a light gray ground: it is amazingly familiar and tame.

Rich offerings are made to this deity; priests and priestesses appointed for its service; it is invoked in extremely wet, dry, or barren seasons; and, in a word, on all the great difficulties and occurrences of life.

The people of *Benin* believe in an invisible deity, who created heaven and earth, and governs them with abso-

lute power; but they conceive it needless to worship him, because he is always doing good without their services. They also believe in a malignant deity, to whom they sacrifice men and animals, to satiate his thirst of blood, and prevent him from doing them mischief. But they have innumerable objects of worship; as elephants' teeth, claws, bones, dead men's heads, or any trifle that chance throws in their way, to which they make a daily offering of a few boiled yams, mixed with palm oil. On great occasions they sacrifice a cock, treating the divinity with the blood only, and reserving the flesh for themselves. Persons of high rank give an annual feast to their gods, at which multitudes of cattle are offered to the idols and eaten by the people. Each offers his own sacrifices, without giving the priests any sort of trouble.

Picart has given a particular account of a ceremony of some tribes in Guinea, around a sacred tree, called the tree of

the Fetish. At the foot thereof, says he, they set a table, which is embellished below with boughs, wreathed in the form of crowns. The table is covered with palm wine, rice, millet, &c. in order to drink and eat after their service is over, in honour of their Fetishes. The whole day is spent in dancing and capering round the tree of the Fetish, and in singing and drumming upon divers instruments of brass. Their priest frequently sits near the centre of the place before a kind of altar, on which he offers up some sacrifices to the Fetishes. Men, women, and children, sit promiscuously round the celebrant, who reads or pronounces a kind of homily to them. At the conclusion, he takes a wisp of straw, twisted hard, which he dips into a pot full of some particular liquor, in which there is a serpent. He either besmears, or sprinkles the children with this holy water, mumbling over them a certain form of words. He observes the same ceremony with respect to the altar, and afterwards empties the pot; and then his assistants close the service with some inarticulate, unintelligible sounds, loud acclamations, and clapping of hands. On this solemn day, they wash their faces and bodies with more care and pains than on any other, for they practise ablutions. They wash themselves



Virginia Priest.. p. 563.



Virginia Magician. p. 563.

every morning, and afterwards draw white lines upon their faces, with a piece of earth, like chalk or lime, as acts of devotion, performed in honour of the Fetish.

The priest, attended by two women, frequently repairs to the tree of the Fetish, in order to accomplish his magical incantations; at the foot of which appears a black dog, which answers all his interrogatories.

The religion of the Dahomans, like that of the neighbouring kingdoms, consists of such a mass of superstition as can hardly be described. The objects of their devotion are the sun and moon, various animals and trees, and other substances. The Portuguese word *fetico*, or, as the English pronounce it, *fetish*, signifying witchcraft, has been adopted by most of the maritime natives of Africa, as well as by the Europeans who trade thither. Of their *amulets*, or *charms*, the principal is a scrap of parchment, containing a sentence of the Koran, which the natives purchase from the Moors, who visit the country, and which they hang up in their apartments, and decorate with a variety of rude images. Among the objects of their idolatrous worship, is a species of snake, or serpent, called *Daboa*; they put it in a basket, and place it in the temple destined for it, where they secretly feed it with rats, but pretend that it lives upon air. The temple is served by priestesses, supported at the king's expense. Every year there is a festival in honour of this serpent, at which the *grandees* assist, and for which the king supplies the necessary articles. It lasts usually seven days, during which time, the people abandon themselves to drinking, music, and dancing. Great faith is placed in the serpent. Those who labour under bodily pains, apply the animal to the part affected, and pregnant women offer prayers to it for a favourable delivery. The tiger is also held in veneration, and there is a temple dedicated to the devil, or bad demon. Notwithstanding these superstitions, the people have a confused idea of a Supreme Being, all powerful and infinite, whom they endeavour to propitiate by their *fetish*; but pay him no other worship, as they are convinced that he is too good to do them any evil.

The Ashantees are, perhaps, the most polished nation of negroes to be met with in Western Africa. They are, however, gross idolaters, and most lavish of human blood in sacrifices at their funerals and festivals. They say that, at the beginning of the world, God created three black men and three white, with the same number of women, and placed before them a large box, or calabash, and a sealed paper.

The black men had the privilege of choosing, and they took the box, expecting it contained every thing; but when they opened it, they found only gold, iron, and other metals, of which they did not know the use. The white men opened the paper, and told them every thing. This happened in Africa, where God left the black men in the bush. The white men he conducted to the water side, where he taught them to build a ship, which carried them to another country. From hence they returned, after a long period, with various merchandise, to trade with the black men, who might have been the superior people if they had chosen right. The kings and governors are believed to dwell with God after death, enjoying to eternity the luxuries and state they possessed on earth: the paradise of the poor affords only a cessation from labour. There are two orders of men attached to the inferior deities, called fetishes. Every family has its domestic fetish, to which they offer yams, &c: some of them are wooden figures; others are of fanciful forms, and different materials. When the Ashantees drink, they spill a little of the liquor on the ground as an offering to the fetish; and when they rise from their chairs, or stools, their attendants hastily lay the seat on its side, to prevent the devil, or evil spirits, from slipping into their master's place. This evil spirit is supposed to be white; doubtless from the same motive or feeling which induces Europeans to say that he is black: for, indeed, who would wish to resemble the devil, either in colour or shape, however some of us may not object to a resemblance to him in character?

SEC. VIII.—RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES AND CUSTOMS OF THE POLYNESIANS.

Polynesia is a name given by geographers to the great body of islands scattered over the Pacific ocean, between Australasia and the Philippines, and the American continent. It extends from lat. 35° N. to 50° S.; and from lon. 170° to 230° E.; an extent of 5000 miles from north to south, and 3600 from west to east. It includes, therefore, the Sandwich islands, the Marquesas, Navigators, Society, Mulgrave, Friendly, Ladrone, and Pelew Isles, the Carolines, Pitcairn's island, &c.

A general similarity in respect to the objects of religious worship, as well as the forms of idolatrous and superstitious practice, obtains throughout the whole of Polynesia; although some differences may be found between different groups of islands, and even between islands belonging to the same group.

The supreme deity of Polynesia, who is generally regarded as the creator of the world, and the parent of gods and men, has different names in different groups. By the Tahitians, he is called *Taaroa*; by the Hawai-
Gods.
 ians, *Tanaroa*; and by the inhabitants of the Western Isles, *Tangaroa*. According to one of the legends of the Tahitian mythology, Taaroa was born of Nighl, or proceeded from Chaos, as did his consort Ofeufeumaiterai. Oro, the great national idol of Raitea, Tahiti, Eimeo, and some other islands was the son of the foregoing. Oro took a goddess to wife, who became the mother of two sons. These four male and two female deities constituted their divinities of the highest rank. This was the catalogue furnished the missionaries by the priests of Tahiti. Other gods of high and uncreated order, however, are mentioned, as Raa, Tane, &c. Besides the above, they had numerous other inferior deities.

The image of Taaroa cannot well be described. It may be stated, however, in respect to one, which was taken from the temple at Rurutu, that it bore some resemblance
Idols.
 to the human figure. It was about four feet high, and twelve or fifteen inches broad, and was carved out of a solid piece of close, white, durable wood. On his face and body a great number of images were formed, denoting the number of gods which had proceeded from him; the image was hollow, and within were found a number of small idols.

In the Sandwich islands there is a resemblance among all their idols. The head has generally a horrid appearance, the mouth being large, and usually extended
Sandwich Idols.
 wide, exhibiting a row of large teeth, resembling the cogs in the wheel of an engine, and adapted to excite terror, rather than inspire confidence. Some of these idols are of stone; others are composed of wicker work covered with red feathers.

The Polynesian temples are of three classes—natural, local, and domestic. In the first are deposited their principal idols, and in and around them are held their great
Temples.
 festivals: the second belong to the several districts; the third are appropriated to the worship of their household gods. In the South Sea islands the name of their temples was Marae; these were buildings of a rude construction, and resembled oratories more than temples.

The worship of the Polynesians consists of prayers, offerings, and sacrifices. In their prayers, they address their gods either in a kneeling posture,
Worship.
 cross legged, or crouching. Like the pharisees in the days of

our Saviour, they extend their supplications to a great length, and use many vain repetitions, thereby hoping to recommend themselves to the special notice of the deity. Their offerings consist of fowls, fishes, beasts of the field, fruits of the earth, and manufactures of various kinds. When animals are offered, they are generally whole; but fruits are commonly dressed. Portions of the offerings are considered sacred, and may not be eaten; the remainder is monopolized by the priests, and other sacred persons, who are privileged to eat of the sacrifices. Human victims were formerly offered in great numbers, especially in seasons of war, at great national festivals, during the illness of their rulers, and on the erection of their temples. When an individual had been selected for sacrifice, the family to which he belonged was said to be *tabu* i. e. devoted; and, hence, if another victim was wanted, it was likely to be taken from such a family. When the person was about to be sacrificed, he was generally murdered at a moment, when he was little expecting the stroke. As soon as dead, his body was placed in a long basket, and carried to the temple. Here it was offered, not by burning it, but by placing it before the idol. After a variety of ceremonies by the priest, among which one was to pluck out an eye of the victim, which being placed on a plantain leaf was handed to the king, who passed it to his mouth, as if he would eat it the body was wrapped in a basket of cocoa-nut leaves, and frequently deposited on the branches of a neighbouring tree. Here having remained a considerable time, during which it became dry and shrivelled, it was taken down, and the bones were buried beneath the wide pavement of the Marae.

When a person deceased, the first object was to ascertain the *cause* of his death, as the ceremonies which followed varied accordingly. These ceremonies being performed, the body was to be disposed of. In case of a chief, or person of rank, the body was preserved; but all others were buried. When about to be interred, the corpse was placed in a sitting posture, with the knees elevated, the face pressed down between the knees, the hands fastened under the legs, and the whole body tied with a cord. The interment usually took place on the day the person deceased, or the day following. During the interval which elapsed between death and burial, the surviving friends watched the corpse, indulging their grief in loud and bitter lamentations, and cutting themselves with a shark's tooth. The bodies of their chiefs were embalmed, and afterwards preserved in houses erected for that purpose.

Funeral
Rites.



Religious ceremony performed at Guinea in honor of their Deity, 568.



Funeral ceremony of the nations of Guinea. p. 568.

A BRIEF VIEW OF MINOR SECTS.*

ARIANS derive their name from Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, who flourished about the year 315. He maintained that the Son was totally and essentially distinct from the Father; that he was the first and noblest of all those beings, whom God the Father had created out of nothing, the instrument by whose subordinate operation the Almighty Father formed the universe, and therefore inferior to the Father both in nature and dignity. The Holy Spirit, he maintained, was created by the Son. In modern times, the term Arian is indiscriminately applied to those who consider Jesus simply subordinate to the Father.

DUNKERS, or **TUNKERS**, so called from a German term, implying their baptizing by *immersion*, a practice prevalent among them. Their founder was Conrad Peysæl, a German Baptist, who, weary of the world, retired to an agreeable solitude, about fifty miles from Philadelphia, where, gathering around him a colony, he carried out his peculiar notions on religion. The chief tenet of this sect is, that future happiness is only to be obtained by penance and outward mortification, so as that, Jesus Christ, by his meritorious sufferings, became the Redeemer of mankind in general, so each individual of the human race, by a life of abstinence and restraint, may "work out his own salvation." Nay, it is said, they admit of works of supererogation. They use the same form of government, and the same discipline, as the English Baptists do, except that every person is allowed to speak in the congregation, and their best speaker is usually ordained to be minister. They have also deacons, and deaconesses from among their ancient widows, who may use all their gifts, and exhort at stated times.

HUMANITARIANS, a term applied to those modern Socinians, who maintain the *simple humanity* of Jesus Christ; or, that Jesus was "a mere man, and naturally fallible and peccable, as Moses, or any other prophet." Many of the Socinians of the present day are of this faith.

* The manuscript having extended considerably beyond the author's expectations, he finds himself obliged to reject a large portion of the matter prepared for this part of the volume. But as the value and interest of the work may be found to be enhanced by the change, he trusts his readers will admit the apology.

JERKERS, or BARKERS, a set of Schismatics, who arose in Kentucky, and adjoining parts, about the year 1803, during and following a remarkable effusion of the Spirit, and who manifested their zeal in an extraordinary manner by falling down, rolling, shouting, jerking, dancing, barking, &c. They were originally composed of Baptists, Presbyterians, and Methodists. In process of time, they separated from their respective orders, and formed a new Presbytery, called the Springfield, upon New-Light principles. This, however, was soon dissolved, upon which many of these fanatics became Shaking Quakers.

JUMPERS, so called from their practice of jumping during the time allotted for religious worship. They originated in Wales, about the year 1760, among the Calvinistic Methodists. Led on by preachers of enthusiastic temperament, they at length considered it the essence of religion, and the most effective means of inculcating it, to exhibit the most wild and extravagant conduct. They cried out even to vociferation, in the midst of the congregation. Some clapped their hands, while others jumped up and down in apparent ecstasy. This at last came to be considered as a proof of the presence and approbation of God. The sect, at the present time, is comparatively small.

MENNONITES, originally a society of Baptists in Holland, so called from Menno Simon, who lived in the 16th century. After him, they maintain that practical piety is the essence of religion; they plead for universal toleration, deny infant baptism, reject the terms person and trinity, object to oaths, and capital punishments. In their discipline, they resemble the Presbyterians. The Mennonites are a numerous and respectable body in Pennsylvania. Among them, baptism is not administered by immersion, though it is confined to adults. The person baptized kneels, and the minister holds his hands over him while the deacon pours water through them upon the head of the subject. This is followed by prayer and imposition of hands.

MORAVIANS. This sect is supposed to have arisen under Nicholas Lewis, Count of Zinzendorf, a German nobleman, who died 1760. They were also called *Hernhutters*, from Hernhuth, the name of the village where they first settled. The followers of Count Zinzendorf are called Moravians, because the first converts to his system were some Moravian families; the society themselves, however, assert, that they are descended from the old Moravian and Bohemian brethren, who existed as a distinct sect, sixty years prior to the reformation.

They also style themselves *Unitas Fratrum*, or the *United Brethren*.

SABBATARIANS are a body of Christians who keep the *seventh* day as the *sabbath*, and are to be found principally, if not wholly, amongst the Baptists. They assert, that the change of the sabbath, from the seventh to the first day of the week, was effected by Constantine, upon his conversion to the Christian religion. The three following propositions contain a summary of their principles as to the article of the Sabbath: 1st. That God hath required the observation of the seventh, day to be observed by mankind universally for the weekly sabbath: 2ndly, That this command is perpetually binding on man till time shall be no more; 3rdly, That this sacred rest of the seventh-day is not, by divine authority, changed from the seventh and last to the first day of the week.

SANDEMANIANS, a modern sect that originated in Scotland, about the year 1728, where it is, at this time, distinguished by the name of Glassites, after its founder, Mr. John Glass, who was a minister of the established church in that kingdom; but, being charged with a design of subverting the national covenant, and sapping the foundation of all national establishments, by maintaining that the kingdom of Christ is not of this world, was expelled by the synod from the church of Scotland. The chief opinions and practices in which this sect differs from other Christians, are their weekly administration of the Lord's Supper; their love-feasts, of which every member is not only allowed, but required to partake, and which consist of their dining together at each other's houses in the interval between the morning and afternoon service; their *kiss* of charity used on this occasion, at the admission of a new member, and at other times when they deem it necessary and proper; their weekly collection before the Lord's Supper, for the support of the poor, and defraying other expenses; mutual exhortation; abstinence from blood and things strangled; and washing each other's feet.

SHAKERS, are a sect which arose in the United States in 1774. The principal or leader of this sect was Anne Leese, or Lee, who emigrated to America in the above year, with a number of followers, with whom she settled at Niskayuna, near Albany. They have flourishing establishments at Lebanon and Pittsfield. The tenets on which the Shakers mostly dwell, are those of human depravity, and of the miraculous effusion of the Holy Spirit. Their leading practical tenet is the *abolition of marriage*; they vindicate their music and dancing as leading parts of worship, especially alluding

to the return of the prodigal; while the elder son, disliking music and dancing, represents the natural man, condemning their soul-reviving practices.

SOCINIANS take their name from Faustus Socinus, who died in Poland, 1604. There were two who bore the name Socinus, uncle and nephew, and both disseminated the same doctrine. The Socinian asserts that Christ had no existence until born of the Virgin Mary; and that being a man like ourselves, though endowed with a large portion of the Divine wisdom, the only objects of his mission were to teach the efficacy of repentance without an atonement, as a medium of the Divine favour; to exhibit an example for our imitation; to seal his doctrine with his blood; and, in his resurrection from the dead, to indicate the certainty of our resurrection at the last day.

SWEDENBORGIANS, or *New Jerusalem Church*. This sect owes its origin to Emanuel Swedenborg, a native of Sweden, born 1689. In 1743, he began to disseminate his doctrines which, as gathered from his works, are summarily as follow: 1. That there is but one God, one in essence and one in person, in whom there is a Divine Trinity, like soul, body and operation in man, and that the Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ is that one God. 2. That the humanity derived from the virgin was successfully put off, and a divine humanity put on in its stead, and this was the glorification of the son of man. 3. That redemption consisted in the subjugation of the powers of hell, whereby man was delivered from the bondage of evils and errors and that it was thus an actual work on the part of the Lord, for the sake and happiness of man. 4. That faith alone does not justify and save man; but he must have faith, charity, and good works. 5. That the sacred Scripture is divinely inspired in every particular, and contains a natural, spiritual, and celestial sense, and is applicable to angels in heaven, as well as to men on earth. 6. That man enters, immediately after death, into the spiritual world, leaving his body, which will never be reassumed, and continues, to all eternity, a man in a human form, with the possession of all his faculties. 7. That the last judgment spoken of in the New Testament was effected by the Lord in the spiritual world in the year 1757: the good were then elevated to heaven, and the evil cast down to hell. Thus the way was prepared for the second advent of the Lord, which was a coming, not in person, but in the power and glory of his Holy Word; and, a new spiritual influx being communicated, a new church would thereby be established.

THE END.

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